

The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

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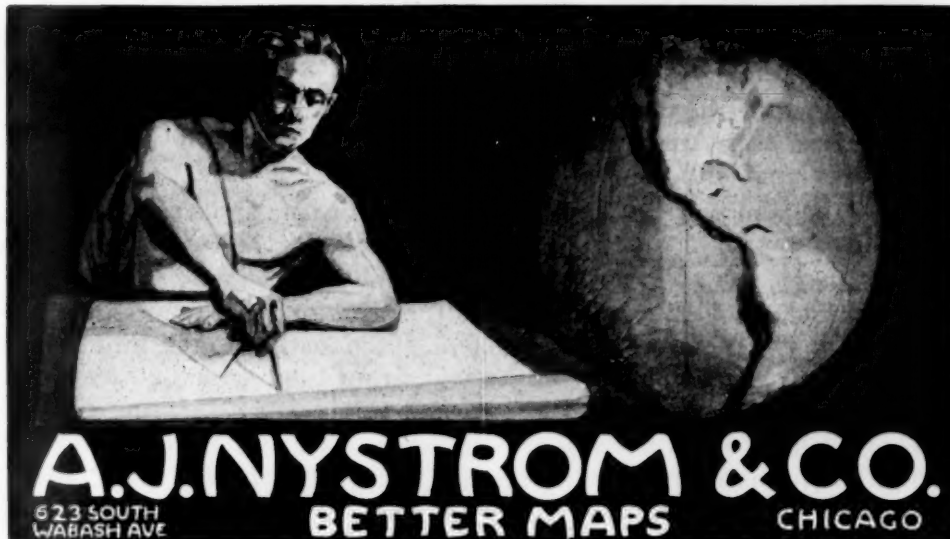
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With the co-operation of the National Bureau for Historical Service of Washington, D. C., THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE will publish during the period, September, 1917, to June, 1918, a series of about forty articles by well-known scholars.

The purpose of the papers will be to show to what extent, if at all, the teaching of history in American schools should be made to bear upon the present international situation of the United States.

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These articles will be published at the rate of four a month; one in each issue dealing respectively with Ancient, European, English, and American History. Roughly they will parallel the usual four high school courses.

The general preparation of the articles is under the supervision of committees, of which the following are chairmen: Ancient History, Prof. R. V. D. Magoffin, of Johns Hopkins University; European History, Prof. Dana C. Munro, of Princeton University; English History, Prof. Arthur L. Cross, of the University of Michigan; American History, Prof. Evarts B. Greene, of the University of Illinois. Over thirty college professors and experienced secondary school teachers will contribute to the series.

Other features during the year will include a detailed syllabus for the study of European Nations, recommended by the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association; and a number of articles dealing with improved classroom methods.

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To Those Who Remain at Home

To many a history teacher unable to join the forces in the field has come the question, "What can I do? I have been trained in normal school, college, and graduate school in certain habits of research; I have acquired what I believe to be satisfactory pedagogical methods; I have stored my mind and notebooks with innumerable facts concerning the history of the past; I may even have developed a power of generalization and comparison which at times I call a philosophy of history. But can I make any of these expertnesses count for my country in the present struggle? They seem so impractical, so far removed from the battlefield conflicts that I am tempted to throw them all over and enter a munitions factory. I, who am willing to give my goods, my blood, and my life to the country—must I go on recounting these tales of forgotten days? What can I do?"

A partial answer to this question was given in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for June. Another answer is found in the announcement made by the National Board for Historical Service and the Committee on Public Information on another page of this issue.

But still another answer can be made to the question. The history teacher can effectively serve the country through the daily class-room work. This will require careful thought, much work in rearrangement of material and great care in the presentation of the facts.

There is one sacrifice no historian must make. He must not distort or pervert the facts of history to suit the present struggle. He must "see things as they really were and are. This is not easy at any time; it is peculiarly difficult at such a time as this when to many people a slight distortion of facts may even seem a patriotic duty. Aggressive sovereigns like Louis XIV and Frederick the Great were usually able to find loyal subjects who could produce legal and historical arguments in support of policies already put into effect by their armies in the field. Similar things have happened in the present war and since history teachers are not less human than their fellow-citizens, we must all of us be on our guard against this mistaken view of patriotic duty. In the long run loyalty to the country, as well as loyalty to history, are best served by looking the facts squarely in the face."

Yet in the class-room, as is pointed out in the Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education, entitled, "History and the Great War: Opportunities for History Teachers," the conscientious teacher can

do much. (1) By training pupils in the "historical conception of their membership in a *continuing* community, more important than their own individual fortunes;" (2) by supplying a "larger and truer perspective" in movements of depression or of easy-going optimism; (3) by teaching the financial and economic experiences of other wars; (4) by training pupils and their parents to take an intelligent part in the decision of public questions, particularly by laying a foundation for sensible action in international relations, in an understanding of other nations; and (5) thus prepare citizens generally to accept the responsibility for a permanent "establishment of a better international order, a real society of nations."

What facts of history should be dwelt upon in order to attain these results? How can these results be obtained in a course in ancient or medieval history? These questions are answered in general terms in the Bulletin mentioned above. But they will receive more definite answers in the series of articles which begins in this issue of the MAGAZINE.

Under the auspices of the National Board for Historical Service four committees of professors and teachers of history have been organized, to consider the problems respectively of ancient, European, English, and American history. The chairmen of these committees are Prof. R. V. D. Magoffin, Prof. D. C. Munro, Prof. A. L. Cross, and Prof. E. B. Greene. With the assistance of many other workers these committees are preparing four series of articles which will appear in the MAGAZINE from the present number until June, 1918. An article for each one of the fields of history will appear in each issue, and the effort will be made to have all the articles roughly parallel the usual year's work in each subject.

Among the writers of the series are the following professors and teachers of history: E. B. Greene, St. G. L. Sioussat, T. C. Smith, C. R. Fish, E. D. Adams, James Sullivan, R. A. Mauer, F. L. Paxson, A. L. Cross, C. H. McIlwain, E. R. Turner, D. C. Munro, J. H. Breasted, R. V. D. Magoffin, A. T. Olmstead, W. L. Westermann, Arthur I. Andrews, and others. The series is being prepared with the co-operation of the National Board for Historical Service, of Washington, D. C.

It is the earnest hope of all the scholars co-operating in this work that history teaching in America may retain in the present crisis not only its scholastic standards, but also that it will draw from the past examples which will be of enduring social value.

Ancient Egypt and the Modern World

BY PROFESSOR JAMES HENRY BREASTED, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

Much modern history has been made since August, 1914, in the valley of the Somme in northern France. The soil of the battle-scarred hills overlooking the river is thickly sown with fragments of steel shells which have deeply penetrated the slopes and natural terraces made by the river ages ago, when it was at a higher level and before it had sculptured out its present valley and bed. These steel fragments buried here represent man's latest and most terrible effort in the art of self-destruction.

You may go to this valley when the guns are silent, and a few moments' work with a shovel on the gravel slopes along the brow of the upper terraces will uncover the gravels which were lapped by the river a hundred and fifty thousand years ago and more. If you know the proper places a little search will reveal among these gravels, flint fist hatchets, the earliest surviving weapons and handiwork of man, wrought not less than fifty thousand and perhaps a hundred and fifty thousand years ago. They are man's first devices, or at least the earliest that have survived to us, for hunting, for self-defence and for destruction of his kind. There they lie as you unearth them, side by side with the fragments of steel shells in the same gravels, and the whole sweep of human history lies between them. From the flint fist hatchet to the modern explosive shell of steel—what a story of human endeavor leads us age by age from the one to the other!

It is only as we view the career of man in a panoramic vista like this, that we gain impressions of the unity of that career in the long upward struggle toward civilization, the attainment of which we earliest discern on the Nile. The progress, and with it the discoveries which displaced the European's stone implements, and put into his hand the copper hatchet and dagger, were first achieved in Egypt. In that progress, among many other of its aspects, two processes of fundamental importance to the modern world may be discerned. The graves of the earliest Egyptians as we find them in the desert gravels along the margin of the Nile Valley, contain an equipment for the next world—an equipment in which we see the incoming of metal and the Nile-dweller's gradual conquest of the material world about him. That conquest went on with an effectiveness and completeness, leading to a mechanical and technical supremacy, which made the thirtieth century B. C., the greatest century in man's growing control of the material world before the nineteenth century A. D.

The first of these two processes was therefore *the Egyptian's surprisingly extended conquest of the material world*, which in the sovereign power and splendor of its great monuments, is comparable with our own modern achievements in the conquest of our vast domain in North America. Besides the earliest

metal and the first sea-going ships, many things fundamental to our own material progress at the present day, as every one knows, were discovered or devised and developed by the Egyptians as their early power over the material processes of life expanded. Hand in hand with these went the growth of finer capacities of the human mind, as we see emerging the earliest writing, the first great architecture in stone, portrait sculpture of remarkable power in spite of the fact that it is the earliest known, decorative art which for the first time drew upon flowers and other vegetable motives for its fundamental forms, and brought the whole world of such natural beauty into decorative design for all time.

While all this had been going on, it had stimulated and itself had been greatly furthered by the second process, *the development of a great social and administrative organization*, resulting in the first human society organized on a large scale. After a long struggle for leadership among many petty states up and down the lower Nile between the First Cataract and the Sea, the result of the competition was the final triumph of Menes, the leader of the valley communities above the Delta, who conquered the Delta kings, and welded the upper and lower kingdoms into the first great nation of the early world. Enormous prestige was rapidly acquired by the Pharaonic house thus founded. Upon the imagination of the Egyptian there gradually dawned the unapproachable power and splendor of a supreme personality, involving with it also the conception of a great state, with which it was identical. For the control of the economic and social life of the prosperous Nile communities, the Pharaohs developed a detailed organization of local government, forming a vast administrative machine, the like of which did not arise in Europe until far down in the later history of the Roman Empire. In this first great fabric of human organization, the individual member of a community disappeared or was engulfed, and the state was supreme. Here, then, was manifested and developed for the first time that power of the state, unknown in the life of the primitive hunter with his fist hatchet on the banks of the Somme—a power over life and death, to which millions of men are to-day unquestioningly bowing, as they sacrifice themselves and all that human life holds most dear, to international rivalries. This Egyptian organization of men into an elaborately detailed machinery of state, survived far down into Roman times, and had a profound influence on the early world, again illustrating the fundamental importance of the geographical fact that the Nile flows into the Mediterranean, and Egypt is part of the Mediterranean world.

The two processes which we have been discussing placed the Egyptian in control of forces, mechanical

and administrative, so remarkable and effective, that they have left monuments which are still regarded as marvelously impressive embodiments of organized capacity. The pyramids, especially those of Gizeh, while they were intended as royal tombs, have become for us an index of the Egyptian's mechanical and administrative ability to achieve, in the first great period of his national development which we call the Pyramid Age (about 3000 to 2500 B. C.).

It was this remarkable unfolding of human life, nationally organized, and proudly master of the material forces in the midst of which it had grown up, which carried the first civilization to Europe after 3000 B. C., and set going that succession of states, with civilized equipment, which is still contending for supremacy. The first venturesome voyages of Nile sailors across the eastern Mediterranean, evidently before 3000 B. C., were therefore as momentous in unfolding a new world to early man, as was the voyage of Columbus in 1492. Europe had to be discovered by civilization just as did America.

For the first thousand years after the rise of the centralized Egyptian state, the individual was lost in the development of state power and efficiency. Strangely enough, however, with the rise of a feudal state toward 2000 B. C., the spectacle of social oppression, the cry for social justice, the earliest discernible in the ancient world, awoke a response among the ruling classes. A clearly evident movement for social justice took form and produced some of the most remarkable tractates—the literature of the earliest known campaign for just treatment of the poor and the humble, which remind us of the utter-

ances of the Hebrew prophets moved by similar causes. Even the charge which the king delivered to the grand vizier when the latter assumed office was a veritable *magna charta* of justice and social kindness toward the friendless and unknown individual. The movement thus affected the organs of the state itself, which from the sovereign down, was expected to function with full consideration of the individual. This sensitiveness to social justice was part of the earliest great awakening to the imperishable value of character, both here and in the life to come. It gave us symbols like the balances of justice, and contributed much to the symbolism and to the ideals of human righteousness in the ancient world, which have become the heritage of modern times.

The struggle for imperial power in Asia, begun by Egypt in the sixteenth century B. C., not only opened the tremendous drama of imperial ambition and international rivalry, which is still going on in Europe, but revealed to Egypt expanding vistas of universal power which gave birth to a universalism able to conceive the earliest monotheism, to discern a sole God of the universe, to whom all nations were admonished by the Egyptian Pharaoh to bow down as the beneficent father of all men. Toward this lofty ideal, which in the hands of the Egyptian sovereign, failed to maintain itself in the fourteenth century B. C., the eyes of men are still looking in the present colossal collapse of what we once thought was a practicable and beneficent internationalism, but which has proven to be the old and familiar cloak of a selfish and sordid nationalism.

England Before the Norman Conquest

BY PROFESSOR LAURENCE M. LARSON, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

With the more recent chapters of English history thronged with events the importance of which reaches far beyond the narrow limits of the British kingdom, it is becoming increasingly difficult to find time and patience for the study of the earlier centuries of English life. In the minds of many teachers there is also doubt whether the study of distant ages is really worth while; in these imperialistic days when statesmen aim at world power and reckon in billions it seems futile to give precious hours to tracing the fortunes of little kingdoms that were scarcely larger than shires to-day. This objection is not wholly without force; there is much in earlier history that may and should be omitted; but there is also much that lies at the very roots of English and British development, without the knowledge of which the growth and changes of modern times will scarcely be understood. In those distant centuries the British race was slowly being formed; the English kingdom was taking shape; and England was gradually being drawn into closer relations with the more important parts of the European world.

In the study of prehistoric times there is a temptation to dwell on the peculiarities of primitive life, on the forms (such as they were) of culture and civilization. This may very properly be done as it illustrates the progress of society from the exceedingly simple forms of existence in the cave dwellings to the more complex life in the modern city. More important, however, are the facts of racial development. The Stone Worker was subdued by the more efficient warrior of the Bronze Age. The Bronze Worker in his turn had to yield to the Celt who was armed with weapons of iron. But neither of these older races was wholly wiped out, and consequently the Britons whom Cæsar described for us were a somewhat mixed people. With the Romans came soldiers and merchants from all the lands of the Mediterranean world. During the early Middle Ages came the Anglo-Saxons and the Danes. The Normans arrived in the eleventh century. Since then from time to time other non-English elements have been added to the population of Great Britain. Hodgkin's suggestion that the inhabitants of England should be called Anglo-

Celts rather than Anglo-Saxons has much in its favor; but the older strains should not be wholly ignored, and perhaps it is more nearly correct to speak of the modern Englishman as of the English race.

An important feature of English history is the many extensive and varied relations that England has established with other parts of the world. The British government and people are in certain respects interested in nearly all the lands of the earth; conversely the world is often keenly interested in the plans and fortunes of England. So far as we know the first cultured peoples that developed an interest in the British Isles were the Phœnicians and the Greeks whose traders visited Britain in the fourth century B. C. It is worth noting that British commerce which in modern times has grown to such immense proportions actually antedates the recorded history of the islands, and this fact should lead to a closer study of the physical features of the archipelago and the advantages of its geographical position.

The long period of Roman domination did not affect Britain so deeply as it affected other parts of the provincial world. It is therefore hardly expedient to dwell very long on the Roman period. In the past too much attention has been given to certain interesting details of the process of conquest and too little to the permanent results of Roman occupation. During these three centuries and a half the Britons were taught the forms of civilized life; Christianity was introduced; and the material resources of the country were developed. It is doubtless true that the departure of the legions was followed by a reaction toward barbarism; but Christianity maintained itself and sent forth missionaries like St. Patrick; when the English came they found a system of cultivated estates which probably affected their own plans of settlement and methods of agriculture; when they were ready to utilize the mineral resources of the island, they resumed work in the old mines that the Romans had opened and developed; when they began to build strongholds and cities they found the old Roman sites conveniently at hand.

The invasion of the Angles and Saxons was an event of the first importance. They built the Old English kingdom and drew its boundaries very near where they run to-day; they gave the greater part of Great Britain a new language; with their poets the greatest literature of all time had its beginning. There is, however, no need to dwell on these matters as the average text-book is quite sure to do justice to the Old English period. Unfortunately the pupil is too often made to feel that the Anglo-Saxons were the only important element in Great Britain. Doubtless they were the most important, but the native Britons, the Roman missionary, and the Danish pirate also had a share in the making of England.

In the eighth century the Germanic population of Britain was further strengthened by the invasion and settlement of the Northmen (Danes). It has been said that the passion for individual freedom and the love of a seafaring life came into the English race

with the Norse blood; this may not be entirely true, but there can be no doubt that these characteristics were intensified by the addition of this new racial element. On the political side the importance of the invasion lay in the destruction of nearly all the English kingdoms and the organization of the Danelaw on their ruins. Two facts should be carefully noted:

1. Alfred's kingdom of Wessex alone survived, and this state became the hope of all who wished to throw off the Danish yoke. The English kingdoms were never united. The Anglo-Saxon monarchy grew out of the expansion of Wessex northward into the Danelaw, a process that continued for a period of more than two generations.

2. The Danelaw was not a political unit, but a group of independent states. Consequently the Danes were not able to hold their own against the constant pressure from the south. For a long time, however, they succeeded in making Saxon rule in the northern half of England extremely uncertain.

The kingdom built up and organized by Alfred and his successors endured for nearly two hundred years. The first half of this period was an age of growth and power; the second half was an age of decline. It is customary to attribute the downfall of the West Saxon dynasty to the incompetence of King Ethelred II; no doubt the king was incompetent, at least he did not possess the strength and the qualities of statesmanship that the age required. Other considerations, however, are also important:

1. The Danelaw was disloyal, at least the men of the north gave very little assistance against the Vikings; in return the pirates usually spared this part of the kingdom.

2. There was much dissatisfaction north of the Thames with Dunstan's reforms, especially with his efforts to build up monasticism at the expense of the secular priesthood.

3. For more than thirty years the invading Danes harried the loyal Anglo-Saxon territories south of the Thames; Wessex was "bled white."

After 1016 the native English to a large extent lost control of the government of their country; the native aristocracy was largely destroyed and Cnut administered his kingdom largely by the aid of Scandinavian nobles and adventurers. His regime was scarcely popular, but it gave peace and security and the natives murmured very little after the first years. Nor were the English wholly pleased with the government of Edward the Confessor; the Northmen were driven out, but the masterful Normans were beginning to take their places.

The events that center about the battle of Hastings were full of meaning for the future of English history, and should be studied with some care. Too often the Conquest is regarded as being determined by a single battle; but the study of the year 1066 should bring out the following points:

1. England was still disunited and the reign of Edward the Confessor was not of such a character as to promote national feeling. The men of the Dane-

law, though now under English leaders, in 1066 once more refused to support a Saxon King.

2. The fate of England was virtually decided at Stamford Bridge. The enemy was defeated, but the battle seriously weakened the English army. While Harold was in the north with his forces, the Normans landed in Sussex unopposed.

The presence of the Danish alien affected the intellectual as well as the political life of the English people. It is generally held that the decline of Anglo-Saxon literature was due to the Norman conquest; as a matter of fact it began about the time of the accession of Cnut (1016). The Danelaw was the rock on which the Old English monarchy foundered.

Suggestions for the Course in Medieval History

BY PROFESSOR DANA C. MUNRO, OF PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

It is a commonplace that each generation re-interprets the history of the past to suit its own needs. Factors which were previously neglected are emphasized in order to explain matters which are of interest to the people who are studying the history. Examples of this tendency may be seen in the new emphasis on constitutional history which resulted from the thought aroused by the French revolution, or in the change from the history of the monarchs to that of the people, in the various countries, which was so marked a characteristic of the nineteenth century as a whole. The present generation is confronted with new problems, and naturally demands what light can be thrown upon these by history. This is entirely legitimate. But there is danger lest in the enthusiasm for the new points of view, we should neglect the well-known and fundamental features, and either pervert or caricature the history of the past.

In the articles which are to be published in this MAGAZINE points will be stressed which should receive more attention than in the past; but these articles will do far more harm than good if they lead teachers to dwell upon these points to the neglect of essential facts which are necessary for any correct interpretation of the past.

In teaching medieval history it has been customary at the beginning of the course to emphasize three factors, the Graeco-Roman civilization, the Christian Church, and the Germans. In the remainder of the course the first of these three has usually received little attention; something has been said about the influence upon the German of the Roman institutions, and especially of the Roman law; little or no emphasis has been laid upon the fact that the Roman Empire lasted on in the East for 1,000 years, although a lesson or two has usually been allotted to the later Roman, or Byzantine, Empire. One of the best of the text-books limits itself expressly to the history of Western Europe. For some time there has been a feeling that this was a mistake, and was due mainly to our ignorance of the importance and interest of the history of the Byzantine Empire. Since the war began history teachers have been constantly confronted with questions for which they had no adequate answers because of their neglect to study the history of Europe east of the Adriatic, by far the larger half of Europe.

Naturally our interest in the history of our fore-

fathers will be most keen, and no one would advocate the neglect of the fundamental facts in their development, but in teaching this history we certainly should not omit the influences exerted upon them by the higher civilization of the Empire which had its capital at Constantinople. Moreover, as the numbers of the western peoples increased and their power became greater, they were constantly brought into contact with the peoples of the East. The *Drang nach Osten* is not wholly a condition of modern times. In order to understand the results of this contact for the peoples of western Europe it is essential to study the civilization and former history of the peoples with whom they came into contact, and with whom they mixed.

Even a generation ago such a study would have been difficult. There was very little knowledge of the history of the Byzantine Empire, or of the Russians, or the Slavs in general; and in this country there was even less interest. Since that time there has been much study of these subjects; excellent books have been written, and the immense number of immigrants who have come to us from eastern Europe has forced upon our attention the necessity of studying their previous history and understanding their point of view if we are to Americanize them. Now the war has turned the attention of all of us to the problems of the Balkans, of the nearer East, and of the possibilities of success for the Russian revolution. No one of these subjects can be understood without a study of the past history.

This is a fascinating story! "The abiding power of Rome" had one of its manifestations in the Byzantine Empire, which for eight hundred years served as a bulwark to the West, Christianized and civilized the peoples of eastern Europe, maintained European commerce, and preserved for the peoples of a later age much that had been best in the civilization of Greece and of Rome.

In studying the Byzantine Empire it is necessary to take up some conditions in Asia, and especially to master the fundamental features of the Mohammedan history. Some study has frequently been given to this because of its connection with the Crusades, and because of the Moslem civilization in Spain. But too little attention has been paid to the Mohammedan caliphates, and there has not been an adequate understanding of the part which they played in influencing

the history of western Europe. The Turks and the Tartars are little more than names to the average pupil of history, and the recent revolution in Arabia seems incomprehensible because of a lack of knowledge of the past history of that country.

The routes of commerce between Europe and Asia, as well as within Europe itself, need careful attention. Especially, because it was along these routes, and because of this commerce that many ideas were imported into western Europe. The prominence of the Italian cities, the growth of heresies and free thought in southern France and other centers of trade, the Renaissance, and the Reformation itself, cannot be explained without the background of this steady

infiltration of ideas from the more advanced civilization of the East.

All of these things should be made a part of the course in history. To return to the thought of the first paragraph, the great danger is that these may be so emphasized as to exclude some of the well-known and fundamental facts which have usually been taught. This danger is all the greater because anyone who has studied these subjects and has come to have some knowledge of their intense interest, is apt to exaggerate their importance. The teacher must discriminate, not neglecting to bring out the importance of the fundamental features, whether they have usually been taught or have just been brought into prominence by the interests of to-day.

Suggestions on the Relation of American to European History

BY PROFESSOR EVARTS B. GREENE, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

In deciding to enter the great European war, the United States has realized as never before that America can no longer be regarded as a world apart. This is a fact which the teacher of American history cannot leave out of account as he plans his work for the coming year. He will naturally be thinking more than ever of the relation between our own history and that of Europe—of what America owes to the old world and what has been our special contribution to the common stock of civilization. Each teacher should, of course, work out these problems largely for himself, and the results will not all be alike; but a few suggestions are offered in this introductory article, and others will follow in later issues of this MAGAZINE.

It will certainly help us to a right interpretation of American history if we remember that it is really a part of the history of Europe; that it records, for the most part, the expansion of European peoples and European civilization. It is, therefore, not reasonable to complain, as some writers do, that we have failed to develop a culture fundamentally different from that of Europe. The culture of the United States may and should differ from that of any particular European country, as the French does from the English or the Italian from the German, but to expect it to be something essentially non-European is quite absurd.

The nucleus of this nation, the European immigrants who came here in the seventeenth century, chiefly from the British Isles, had to work almost exclusively, for the first generation at least, with the stock of ideas which they brought over with them. Governor Berkeley in Virginia had rather conservative ideas about religion and politics; Roger Williams and William Penn found in America the opportunity to try out radical theories of church and state. But, after all, the radicalism of Williams and the Quakers was just as much a European product as Berkeley's old-fashioned loyalty to Church and King.

It is, of course, true that the experience of each passing generation in the new home modified these inherited ways of thinking, and produced American "folkways" different in one way or another from those of the old country. Radicals who got off in the wilderness by themselves could try social experiments quite impossible at home. The frontier life itself, as Professor Turner has so ably pointed out, tended to change men's thinking, emancipating them from conventions, breaking down class distinctions, and stimulating self-reliance. Much was gained by this experience; but, unless we accept Rousseau's theory that the ideal state is the state of nature, something was also lost for the time being; some of the virtues, as well as the vices of civilization, were left behind to be slowly recovered as the new society developed.

What sort of civilization we should have had if the frontier had worked freely on the succeeding generations without any reinforcement of the European element, no man can tell; but of course that has practically never happened. Europe has not been for America like the God of the deists, who set the world going and then left it very much to itself. We have never been left to ourselves. Colonization, for instance, did not stop with the seventeenth century, but continued with the Scotch-Irish and German immigrants of the eighteenth century, the Germans and the Irish of the middle nineteenth century, the Scandinavians, the Mediterranean peoples, and the Slavs of the last few decades. These people have not only come as individuals to seek their fortunes, but they have often maintained a distinct community life of their own. The later immigrants especially have connected us with parts of Europe with which we had previously had little or nothing to do.

Not only has the old European blood been constantly reinfused into our society, but we have physically come much closer to Europe. The ocean is

still there, the mathematical distances remain unchanged, but the practical meaning of these facts is quite different. Throughout our so-called colonial era, the crossing of the Atlantic was a great adventure, long and full of danger. To-day a journey from New York to Liverpool takes about as many days as it then took weeks; and for the communication of important news this distance hardly counts. An interview with a politician in London or Berlin may be read the same day in Chicago or San Francisco, if our journalists think it worth while, and the censors are willing to let it pass.

But these are not the only ways in which we have been brought closer to Europe. More important still is the fact that the American environment of our individual men and women is much less different from that of Europe than it used to be. We now have many of the material advantages of an older society—a more efficient exploitation of natural resources through a complicated organization of industry and commerce. We are nearer to Europe also in many of the finer products of civilization—quite impossible for the frontiersmen—in our universities, libraries, and scientific collections; in the application of art to pictures, public buildings, and gardens.

Nor is it only in the more comfortable features of an older society that we are reproducing European conditions. We are being made to realize that our natural resources, great as they are, are not so great that we can afford to waste them. No longer are there boundless areas of free land for the worker who feels himself cramped at home. Like our cousins

across the Atlantic, we must think hard about conservation for the sake of our own future and that of coming generations. On both sides of the ocean we have the same painful contrast of luxurious wealth with the struggle for bare existence; and the same insistent demands for a radically different and more just distribution of wealth. Less and less can we feel ourselves a peculiar people; more and more we are enjoying the gains and bearing the burdens of a common civilization.

If this is true, if America and Europe are more and more sharers in a common experience, can we still think of our country as making any distinctive contribution to the common stock. If so, what is that contribution? Is it not essentially this? For three centuries, this continent has been a great laboratory for succeeding generations of Europeans. Experiments in church and state and society, in religious liberty and democracy, which could not easily be performed in the old world—a world too crowded for experiments in high explosives—could be carried on with comparative safety in the wide open spaces of young America. It is not so much that we were a unique people as that we had a unique opportunity. So it came about that the French reformers of 1789 found inspiration in the American Revolution; that half a century later European thinkers like Alexis de Tocqueville were encouraged by our experiments in religious liberty to believe that religion might live without the support of the state; that in our own time we have been hoping to make a real contribution to the safety and progress of European democracy.

Latin American History in Our Secondary Schools¹

BY N. ANDREW N. CLEVEN, PH.D., SAN DIEGO HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE.

Professor Jastrow has again rendered the teacher of history and the educator a distinct service by calling attention to the real purpose of history. Human history, he reminds us, is a continuous evolutionary process. We may treat of particular units, or races, or peoples; or we may treat of the subject of history as a whole. Whatever may be our plan there must always be a clear conception of the essential *oneness* of human history. We may be compelled for various and sundry reasons to divide the whole subject into segments as was done by the Committee of Five. This committee gave us the four block arrangement: one block for ancient, one for modern, one for English, and one for American history with civics. This plan makes it increasingly difficult to keep clearly in mind the fundamental element of the unity of history. How is the teacher, much less the student, to know what to select and what to reject and still retain this element of unity? The four block system is admittedly inadequate in regard to the content of history. The most

glaring instance of this is the course erroneously called *American history*. What does the average senior, pursuing this subject, know about the peoples immediately to the north and the south of the United States? What does he care about the part those Americans have played in the life of our people, or the part that our people play in the lives of the British and Latin Americans? He certainly is not much concerned with Panamerican-mindedness. The almost pathetic provincialism of the average American is very generally reflected in the boys and girls of our secondary schools.

There is need, therefore, of a rearrangement of our general course in history. An enrichment and enlargement of the content of the course is imperative if we would adequately meet the needs of the times. The newer tendencies of the age in education demand the change. The colossal tragedy of the World War has focused thought on the very fundamentals of human society. Systems of education have probably never been subjected to such searching analysis as they are the present time. The keynote of the age is reconstruction: reconstruction of the whole sec-

¹ Paper read before the Social Science Section of the Los Angeles Teachers' Institute, December 22, 1916.

ondary school curriculum. In this process of reconstruction what is to be the fate of history as a separate subject? May we not look for it to emerge from the reconstructive process richer and larger than before? In this *newer* history there will be found large space for the history of the Americas and the Pacific. The whole course of history in the secondary schools might well be made to center about these countries as the core. It could be divided into four parts as under the old system if this be considered necessary. One division could be devoted to British America, one to the countries of the Pacific, one to the United States, and one to Latin America. There should be given in this plan a consideration of the essentials of ancient, modern, English, and Oriental history in order to give the background necessary to a comprehensive view of the modern conditions in the Americas and the Pacific. The period of discovery, exploration, and colonization of the New World and the Pacific could very well be dealt with as a whole. Following this a study could be made of the wars as political, economic, and social emancipation. These could be dealt with in the same large and comprehensive manner; and possibly with greater returns than under the old system. A study of each of the four group countries could follow this general scheme, and should result in a larger appreciation of the interdependence and interrelations of peoples and countries. It should also be conducive to that largest of all movements, the establishment of the World State. There should result a larger conception of international-mindedness, a type of mind which the exigencies of the times make imperative.

If the general course suggested above should be deemed undesirable and impracticable as a whole a separate course in Latin American history could be given in the secondary schools. The wedging of an extra subject into an already seemingly overcrowded curriculum need not revolutionize nor even impair the efficiency of the present system. The argument that the curricula are overcrowded should have no terror for the school administrator. The argument is an old one. Curricula are seldom overcrowded with essentials. If the community considers a subject essential a place will sooner or later be found for it. The course in Latin American history might well extend over a whole year, and should prove exceedingly valuable to the student. In the first place the course should enlarge and enrich the course in the history of the United States. The need of this change in the American history course was strongly emphasized at the last annual meeting of the Pacific Coast branch of the American Historical Association in San Diego, California. Professor Stephens, Professor Bolton, and others expressed themselves in no uncertain terms in this matter. There were several who wrote to me to the same effect. I give a few of these received in the preparation of this paper. The secretary to the president of the University of Oregon wrote:

"We believe that a certain amount of Latin American history should be offered in secondary schools. There is an unwarranted tendency to make American history, as it is taught in the United States, cover

only the history of the United States, utterly disregarding the history of the countries both to the north and south of us; and what other history is taught in high school rarely covers more than classical and western European history. As our relations with the countries to the south of us grow closer, it is obviously desirable that we should teach our young people the history of these countries. Several of them have histories which are as inspiring as that of our own country."

Doctor Martin, of Stanford University, favors the course in the larger high schools. A knowledge of the history of Latin America would, he claims, be a means of making the teaching of Spanish in the high schools more effective. He wrote on this subject:

"In this connection I may state that, in my opinion, there is a very unintelligent enthusiasm at the present time for Spanish in our high schools. Many of the students who flock into Spanish courses do so in the vague belief that they are fitting themselves for lucrative positions in South America. In most cases the teachers of Spanish know nothing whatever about Latin American conditions, and from this point of view the instruction is frequently valueless. I should be inclined to think that if any of these students who acquire a smattering of Spanish should take a good course in Latin American history their ends would be better met."

Professor Manning, of the University of Texas, wrote:

"I am very glad to see that you are so much interested in Latin America, and I think it entirely proper that high schools, especially those like your own, having junior college standing, should introduce an entirely separate course on the history of the the Latin American countries. Possibly that course should cover only half a year's work, instead of a whole year, which we are giving to the study here in the University of Texas, and which is being given in a few of the northern and eastern universities. There is no question but that the study of Latin American history will within a few years become as common as the study of general European history, or certainly as common as the history of any one European country. A few schools of college rank and a few of secondary rank must, of course, be leaders in doing this, and since the University of Texas is so near the border, we feel it entirely proper for us to take an advanced stand in this matter, and since you are located almost exactly on the border, I think that your school and other junior colleges of California would do well to take the lead in introducing it into the secondary schools. I have already learned that they are seriously considering this in the schools of Idaho, and have heard from numerous places elsewhere in the United States."

The essentials in the history of Latin America, like those in the traditional four block system, are suitable for our secondary schools. The subject possesses the materials necessary in any course in history in these schools. The subject matter is teachable. There is an abundance, a variety, and a richness of subject

matter that can be made both interesting and instructive to the student of secondary school age. Nor does the subject matter demand any essential modification in the method of presentation. One may use the traditional method or the newer method, and one will, it seems to me, have succeeded in enlarging the student's experience. The demand upon the teacher who would succeed is great in any course in history; but is especially so in this course. A knowledge of the subject matter is here only of the smallest importance. The teacher who would succeed must be endowed with the rare ability of being able to sympathize with peoples not of his own race. He must be something besides a mere citizen of the United States; he must be an American in the largest interpretation of that word. He must have made a good beginning in the direction of Panamerican-mindedness. I am not denying that the teacher of history in general needs the same generous attitude of mind and sympathy towards humanity. I am merely pointing out that the greater this endowment the greater the success in teaching Latin American history.

No one would attempt to teach the history of Latin America without constantly correlating it with its geography. The geographical conditions are here if anything even more a key to the proper understanding of the history of these countries than in any other course. The problems of the interplay of environment upon the individual, the individual upon environment here afford a most interesting and valuable study for the student of high school age. Instance the distinct ethnographic types already developed in Latin America. There are new races in the process of formation in the sections distinctly circumscribed by physical barriers that will become more nearly the true American race than may be possible in the United States of North America. Already the *gaucho*, *llanero*, *montero*, and *porteno* have played a role in the history of states that would be very difficult to parallel in our own country. Is there a single personality, for example, in our own country that has so thoroughly dominated the scene as did *Dr. Francia* and *Francisco Lopez* in Paraguay, *Rosas* in Argentina, *Paez* in Venezuela, or *Diaz* in Mexico? The more thoroughly the lives of the men of affairs in Latin America become known the more thoroughly will the great effect of environment be understood and appreciated. It is in this connection that the study of Spanish and Portuguese could be most useful to the Americans of the North. It is well enough to study these languages as a hobby, or for their commercial importance; but there should be something more than that. These languages should be studied for what they really are a "key to unlock the treasures of American life, literature, history, and social institutions."

I need merely mention the pre-Columbian era of Latin American history to call to your minds fields of untold riches in romance, art, and history. The great wealth already accumulated and in process of accumulation makes this period one of the most valuable in all history work. The Aztec, Maya, Chibcha,

and Inca civilizations are certainly worthy of very careful study. Most of us already deal with these subjects; but they properly belong, according to our present plan, to the field of Latin American history. The age of discovery, exploration, and colonization, with the proper European background and a right conception of the motives actuating the leading personalities of the age is certainly worthy of careful study by the secondary school student. The efforts to transplant Iberian institutions in the New World should be no less instructive than the efforts of the English, French, Dutch, Swedes, or Russians in the New World. Nor should the history of the struggle of the Spanish and Portuguese for political, economic, and social independence an subsequent national solidarity be less instructive and helpful to the students of the high schools. The efforts made by the newly emancipated Latin American Republics in nation building can hardly fail to be valuable to the student of the evolution of democratic institutions in the United States. The terms "Amazing Argentina" and "Brazil—the Extraordinary"—terms current in our day—connote really colossal achievements. The problems confronting the peoples of Latin America have certainly been formidable—formidable by reason of the inexperience, inaptitude, and ill-conceived ideas concerning the fine art of self-government. The problems confronting the founders of our republic were simple indeed compared with these. Nor need the peoples of Latin America feel reticent about telling what they have actually achieved in this direction. A knowledge of these achievements should be more generally diffused among our people. There should also be a more definite understanding among the Americans of the similarity of the problems confronting the peoples of Latin America and the United States. It would be more in keeping with the dignity and standing of the United States in the Western World to treat the Latin Americans as compatriots in the effort to develop a true democracy in the New World. What a colossal task for us and for them! but one worthy of effort. In the struggle I am not so sure but that the Latin Americans would outstrip us, not excluding even the Mexicans.

The history of Latin America should be introduced into our secondary schools in order to aid in bringing about more friendly relations between the United States and Latin America. This could be more easily accomplished by a mutual understanding of each other's achievements and each other's problems. This understanding would, of course, tend to improve industrial and commercial relations between the two groups of countries. This phase of the subject is now very much to the front. I see no real reason why the schools should not render greater services in this field than they are now doing. The coastwise cities of the Americas could do very efficient work by bringing about an exchange of teachers and students in the larger cities of each country. I am less concerned with the commercial phase of the whole subject. I believe that there is something more to this subject than commerce and trade; nay, than bonds, banks,

and credit. The Second Panamerican Scientific Congress declared:

"The Congress looked beyond material interest to the things of the spirit, well knowing that an understanding based upon an appreciation of and a respect for the intellectual life and achievements of the Americas would be a great bond of sympathy between the peoples of all the American countries."

I would like to quote at length from this admirable report; but time does not permit. You remember that the Congress strongly urged that not only should the details of the lives of the liberators and statesmen be studied, but that the ideals of the different countries should become the common property of all the American Republics. The following from this same report is highly significant:

"It is gratifying to the people of the United States that so much attention to these important subjects is already given in the various American Republics, but it is a source of regret to the advocates in the United States of an enlightened and intellectual Pan Americanism that greater attention has not heretofore been given in the Republic to the north to the interesting history, the continuous development and growth and realization of the ideals of the Latin American peoples."

I commend for your careful perusal the whole of this admirable report (The Final Act by Dr. James Brown Scott, Free from Pan American Union, Washington). It is couched in words befitting the great subject with which it deals. It is both significant and

encouraging. It is an evidence of the presence in our land of individuals with the proper conception of our larger duty in this matter. For there is needed among us Americans of the North an attitude of mind and sympathy truly Panamerican. Let us hope that American provincialism will soon give way to Panamerican-mindedness and finally to International-mindedness.

"Hinter dem Gebirge sind auch Leute."

In conclusion let me quote from President Wilson's speech before the Southern Congress at Mobile, Alabama, 1913:

"I come because I want to speak of our present and prospective relations with our neighbors to the south. I deemed it a public duty as well as personal pleasure, to be here to express for myself and for the government I represent the welcome we all feel to those who represent the Latin American States."

"The future, ladies and gentlemen, is going to be very different for this hemisphere from the past. These states lying to the south of us, which have always been our neighbors, will be drawn closer to us by innumerable ties, and, I hope, chief of all, by the tie of a common understanding of each other."

"We must prove ourselves their friends and champions upon terms of equality and honor. You cannot be friends upon any other terms than upon terms of equality. You cannot be friends at all except upon terms of honor. We must show ourselves friends by comprehending their interest whether it squares with our own or not."

A Political Generalization

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON, HUNTER COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY.

The goal toward which the enlightened teacher of government directs his energies is the development of a civic consciousness; it is an ethical impulse which he wishes to create, not a body of knowledge. The most anti-social boss or political ringster in public life is likely to know more about government than the most alert teacher of civics, possibly more than the most learned professor of political science. He knows all the actual current facts of government, however little he may know about the theory of it or its history. His knowledge is ample. What he lacks is what the rising citizen needs, the ethical impulse to use his citizenship in the interest of the common welfare as against a particularistic desire for the success of a part of the community. What the teacher of civics should inculcate is a consciousness of mutual dependence, the necessity for mutual helpfulness, and the means best adapted to forward social co-operation. The rising generation must feel the fabric of society about him, respect its texture and contribute to its strength.

But too much of our civics teaching has been merely descriptive of government; and largely descriptive of the worst aspects of government at that. Its object

has been to inculcate knowledge of what is falsely called actual government. The gerrymander, the rider, the joker, the strike bill, the spoils system, the activities of the boss and the heeler; all the diseases of the body-politic have been taught as if these were aspects of government rather than manifestations of the criminal instinct of persons who happen to be active in politics instead of porch-climbing or safe-blowing. It is perfectly true that light-fingered gentlemen are and always have been using social institutions as means for relieving the unsophisticated citizen of his surplus wealth; but if one were teaching the science of finance one would not lay great stress on the activities of Jim the Penman, or the expert greengoods man.

Not only is too much attention given to the activities of the parasite, but energies have been wasted in the description of purely ephemeral details such as the number of committees and their names, the number of officials and their salaries, the number of members in a representative chamber and the length of their terms, the number of judges in the courts, and a hundred other things of this sort which good citizens of mature years neither know nor care very much

about. The good citizen is not differentiated from the bad citizen by what he knows about such things as these. He is differentiated by the fact that he performs the few public acts which he does perform with reasonable intelligence; and what he needs to enable him to do this is some basic philosophy of government, some fundamental political theory. He must and will, of course, acquire knowledge of many facts of this sort, but they should be clearly recognized as a by-product of the process of securing philosophical principles.

In addition to many other generally accepted and fundamental political concepts, six may be mentioned as related to the basic problems of all public action. These may be suggested by the following six topics: Party organization; a true definition of law; the process of legislation; the organization of administration; the principle of home rule (whether municipal or national); and the federation of units for the control of common undertakings. The citizen who has thoroughly digested these six concepts and has an opinion of his own on each of them on the basis of which he may test questions that confront him, has a fair political education, whether he has ever thought seriously of bosses and rings or not.

The future citizen should learn early in his career that party activity is as natural and as unavoidable in a self-governing community as the instinct of boys to run in gangs or of cattle to travel in herds. He must know and understand that the law grows out of the common consciousness of the race and that therefore what might be called "reformers' law" is artificial, unreal, and a mere toy with which to amuse the amateur, neither aiding nor seriously injuring anyone. He must know and understand that under self-government every incorporated unit must be permitted to settle its own affairs; but that where several units are interested in the same problem, reason demands that machinery of federation be called in as a means of arriving at a joint solution.

The object of this paper is to suggest a method of treating one of these six topics in an elementary course in government for college students. The one selected is the organization of administration. The writer has been teaching this subject along the lines suggested below for several years with fairly satisfactory results.

One may begin with the assumption that there is no fundamental difference between the true method of organizing public business and the accepted method of organizing private corporations. Public business is proverbially mismanaged, partly because we distrust government, and partly because the average man is only tolerably efficient and self-government cannot rise much above his level. Public business will therefore in its management always be somewhat less well managed than the very best private corporations. But public pension systems, for example, bad as they are, are not worse managed than some highly endowed private ones. One should not be too pessimistic in judging government.

The instruction begins with a description of a busi-

ness corporation such as a railroad. The interest of the stockholders is explained; then the function of a board of directors as the representative, single-chambered legislature of the corporation. It is made clear that the railroad business is extremely simple as compared with the affairs of a state or city; but that the selection of an efficient head is still difficult enough. The administrative head of such a corporation is selected by this representative single chamber and is given complete control of the business as long as his services are retained. He is permitted to select all his subordinates; is encouraged to lead the directors in legislation if his force of will and character and his store of information are sufficient to enable him to do so. In fact, under the general management of such a man as President Underwood, of the Erie Railroad, the board of directors seems to be not much more than an observing and a safeguarding body.

From the private corporation we go to the discussion of the commission-manager plan of city government. The evolution of the plan is outlined. It is shown that the commission plan worked well enough at first when the broom was new and civic enthusiasm in Galveston and Des Moines at a high pitch; but that after the abnormal conditions had passed and life had flattened out, it was necessary to find a normal method of governing cities. The citizens of a municipality are its stockholders, they elect a board of directors large enough to be fairly representative of the composite interests of the whole city, and the directors (the commission) select a general manager and turn the city over to him for as long as he can retain their confidence. He is permitted to appoint his subordinates, more or less hampered by what we call civil service rules.

This reference to the merit system of civil service protection makes it necessary to recognize that Jacksonian Democracy brought into our government a sort of plague called the spoils system, which took deep root in a country which did not respect efficiency of any kind; a country living on the fat of new lands with inexhaustible natural resources; a country in which the orator and the general held a higher place in public esteem than the engineer, the accountant, and the chemist. In order to get rid of the relics of Jacksonian Democracy it was necessary to set up a wall of protection around public servants which has served to protect the incapable with the capable, the disloyal with the faithful; and it is rapidly becoming apparent that if the chief of the administration is selected as he should be, and given the responsibility and power he should have, much of civil service red tape may be unwound, and the administration may be given power to remove those who would as parasites abuse public confidence. The manager of a city should have a means of removing any public servant in his city, very much as the manager of the railroad may. If he cannot, then he cannot be held responsible for the efficient administration of the affairs of the city.

Next, it is unfortunately necessary to bring to the attention of the student the condition of the govern-

ment of some of our American commonwealths. It is unfortunate that young minds must be muddled by having placed before them such pictures of confusion, anarchy, formless irresponsibility, as is represented by the government of New York State and other commonwealths; but possibly such horrible examples may be useful. When it is realized that the governor has no cabinet, that the affairs of the state are conducted by some 150 to 170 boards, commissions, and other officers, serving for all sorts of different terms, appointive or elective in all sorts of ways, and removable, if at all, through methods which make it almost impossible to unseat them, the contrast between this sort of a tangled web and the beautiful system which human experience has evolved when not hampered by "politics" is apparent.

This condition of anarchy (i. e. no government), has grown out of Jacksonian principles, aided by the theory of separation of powers with checks and balances. Jackson's school seemed to think that an American was good enough to fill any position he could get, and it made but little difference to them how he got it if he were loyal to the party. This attitude, with our other unfortunate heritage, the theory of the separation of powers, threw the control of government out of the hands of the public officials into those of the private party leaders; and we shall never put it back into responsible hands except by destroying these two false concepts through educational processes.

Next is described the organization of the government of the United States, where the president is the general manager. It is true he is not elected by the representative assembly as in the case of the corporation and the municipality; the congress was not entrusted with this duty because Montesquieu, misunderstanding the government of England in the time of Walpole, who ruled all England; and supposing that a separation of powers prevailed in England, wrote that fact into a book which dazzled the eyes of our constitution makers. The result has been that our presidents were for a period selected by a caucus of congress and since then have been chosen by a quasi-representative assembly called the party convention. It is true that we go through the form of a general election in which some fifteen million people vote for a man about whom they know nothing whatever, and the candidate of that convention gets into office which can raise the greatest campaign noise, or by chance, as is frequently the case. It isn't such a bad system, after all, except for its expense, hypocrisy and sham.

The organization of our federal administration departs from the principle of administration which is being illustrated in two conspicuous respects. First the method of election is different, and we in this follow the same plan as Brazil and one or two other inconspicuous states, as against the practice of all the progressive countries of the world. The other respect in which we depart from type in our federal government is in senatorial confirmation of presidential appointments. I have sought in vain for a single instance where this power in the hands of the senate did any real good; and the examples of its harmful

results are written into every chapter of our history. Only recently President Wilson was prevented from securing the appointment to the Federal Reserve Board of a Chicago banker of the highest repute. The case of the Federal Trade Commissioner is, however, a more conspicuous example of the abuse of this arrangement.

The author of the bill which created the Federal Trade Commission, its most intelligent advocate, not a politician but a conservative reformer, a man who in New Hampshire opposed the leader of his own party because of the latter's conspicuous lack of usefulness, was rejected by the Senate at the request of this leader (a senator) and for no other reason. Any one who has instances of useful results from the existence of senatorial confirmation of appointments in any state or in the Federal system will confer a favor on the present writer by calling his attention to them.

Let us now test our principle by reference to the government which is conceded in most quarters to be the finest example of political evolution; one which has been hampered least by abstract theory; one which has been carefully guarded by safe conservatism while stimulated by a spirit of stern impatience with special privilege of any sort.

The government of England applies this principle more clearly than does any other public organization with the possible exception of the commission-manager plan of municipal government. The stockholding citizens of England elect a board of directors called a House of Commons; this House of Commons selects a general manager called the Prime Minister; the Prime Minister selects all of his immediate aides who constitute his executive committee and who are his heads of departments. There is no written constitution to limit what the Commons through the Prime Minister may do. There is a King and a House of Lords who have served as conservative influences somewhat as our written constitutions have, and we do not know whether it would be desirable to do without both written constitution and aristocratic conservatism at the same time or not.

In direct imitation of the English constitution, or under the influence of the ideas which the study of this constitution have awakened, most of the other progressive countries of the world have adopted the parliamentary system of executive organization. France, although she has a president elected for a term of years, has relegated him to a position described by the facetious remark that while our president rules without reigning and the English king reigns without ruling, the French president neither rules nor reigns. Like France and England, the other liberal countries have provided that the real head of the administration shall be the chairman of a committee of the representative assembly, shall serve as long as he can keep the confidence of the legislative assembly, and so long as he does serve shall be in practically absolute control of the administrative departments of the government. They all, of course, without much blowing of trumpets, leave most of their civil servants in se-

curity so long as they do the work for which they are paid.

It is always a matter of some surprise to Americans when they hear for the first time that so great a scholar as Professor John W. Burgess puts our presidential system into a class with that of Germany as against the other great countries where the parliamentary system has been set up. Germany and the United States are alike among the great progressive states in that they have not adopted this wise method of organizing public administration. In the United States we permit the president to be selected by private groups of politicians called political conventions. The Germans have avoided this alternative by adhering to the hereditary principle.

The fundamental difference between the German administration and ours is that the German emperor is practically hereditary and ours is not. With this exception, the president of the United States has at least as much power as the German emperor and can exercise as much influence over public affairs. It is in large measure this departure from the principle of administration which we are illustrating that causes Germany to be criticized by those who do not approve of her system. The instant a responsible prime minister is set up in Germany and the emperor recedes to such a position as is now occupied by the king of England, the main difference between those two governments will disappear. The psychology of the people is different, and they would doubtless use the machine differently, but the machine would be the same and it would be called democratic government, because it would be an organization through which the will of the majority of the people of the country is expressed in political action.

There is yet another aspect of this organization which may be emphasized for the reason that many persons confuse the difference between policy-determining officers who are frequently changed because they complete the making of laws by giving the first impulse to their administration, between such policy-determining officials and persons who are merely administrative officers—that is, persons who are not asked to interpret law but to perform service under the law, such as chemists, mechanics, biologists, accountants, architects, stone masons, street sweepers, gunners, sailors, coal heavers, doctors, farm specialists, teachers, mail carriers, stenographers, engravers, brick layers, paper makers, printers, book binders, and a score of other occupations employing in the United States service nearly 300,000 persons. These persons are employed by the government because of the facility and skill with which they do certain kinds of work. They have nothing to do with the policy of the government. It makes no more difference to the government what the political theories of the ship builder are if he can build ships than it makes to us whether our shoemaker is a Democrat or a Republican. We require him to make shoes and do it well, and then he may vote as he likes so far as we are concerned. Such persons are called civil servants or servants of the state. In most civilized countries they

are regarded as practically permanent after they have once been appointed, as much so as are our judges or our school teachers where the schools are well organized. They may exercise all the normal functions of citizens without fear of being disturbed in their occupations; but they recognize of course that among the normal functions of the citizen is not included what President Cleveland called "offensive partisanship."

We have viewed the organization of the public administration from the citizen through the representative assembly and the head of the organization downward to the civil servants. It may now be profitable to glance at the structure from the civil servants upward. Suppose there are fifty thousand permanent employees of some political unit such as the City of New York or the State of Connecticut. These fifty thousand persons are engaged in all the various kinds of work mentioned above. Their work goes steadily on from year to year and decade to decade just as if administrations did not change. The chemist makes his analyses, the draftsman perfects his charts, the biologist dissects his specimens, the engineer surveys his problems, the criminologist studies his charges; all go on as steadily as does the research of the private scholar.

But the policies of the government are constantly changing; and it is necessary for the change of public policy, the new direction given to it, to be reflected in the conduct of the departments of public endeavor in which these permanent servants (I use the word in its highest sense) are engaged. We look from the biologist in the bureau of entomology in the department of agriculture up to the newly-selected head of the administration, who represents the majority of the representative assembly. This assembly has been elected possibly under a mandate to give a new direction to the work of the department of agriculture; and it is the duty of the head of the administration to obey that mandate. He wishes to impress the public will upon the bureau of entomology, but he has ten or a dozen other departments which are also important. He cannot give all of his time to this one, yet he is responsible to the state or the city for the conduct of this one. There remains for him to multiply himself as the representative of public opinion. His work is political, not scientific or mechanical as is that of the civil servants. His duty is to bring the public will to bear on the administrative departments. He must appoint political aides who in sympathy with his views of the public mandate will bring him into relation with the departments, each of these aides being appointed the head of one department, and, if the department be large, give several assistants, who are also political or policy directing officials.

The astounding ignorance of this principle which prevails in many of our states, cannot be better indicated than by citing the fact that these heads of departments, whose sole function must be to bring the work of the departments into line with the policies of the administration, are elective, independent of the head of the administration, and therefore more likely to work confusion than efficiency. Such an organiza-

tion of a state is what is called, in common parlance, the long ballot; and its antithesis, expressing the principle which we have been discussing, has been dubbed for purposes of propaganda, the short ballot.

In conclusion, then, our principle of administration may be summed up as follows: The administration should have an actual head, one person, who is conspicuously responsible; this head should not be popularly elected, but should be the leader of a majority of the legislative assembly. He should appoint all heads of departments and such assistants to these heads as are needed to bring him into intelligent co-operation with the departments. The civil servants who really constitute the departments should be permanently engaged, but should be easily removable for cause without appeal to courts, which appeal would imply some sort of proprietorship in their positions.

Is it not possible even in the schools to substitute for the mere description of government a method in which a limited number of principles, generally accepted by the advocates of conservative political reform, may be made the basis of instruction and the descriptive facts of present constitutional arrangements treated as illustrative of these principles? No one would maintain that such a principle as has been outlined in this paper is accepted by everyone as finally demonstrated, like a mathematical proposition, but it may be maintained that such a principle would give to a class a basis for intelligent discussion and difference of opinion and would make it possible to

develop in the mind of the pupil some processes of political thought which might remain with him after all the facts of government which he learned for examination had departed with his mathematics and his irregular verbs.

If a high school boy is taught, as is often the case in good schools, that government grows out of the conditions of the community, as it does; that our government has certain characteristics which are exceedingly objectionable to all good citizens, is the case; that our government is characterized by a system of separation of powers which has never been anything more than a plague to our institutions; and if he is then given no introduction to a philosophy which may lead him to think soberly enough about the basic principles of government to see that we might evolve a system out of our present conditions which would throw aside this superstition of the separation of powers, is he not likely to become pessimistic and indifferent as a result of his political education? Is he not likely to look upon politics as something that the busy man must put up with as he does with the other results of weak human nature? Is he not likely, as many of our respected business men do, to assume that democracy is hopeless and the only wise thing to do is to keep on the good side of the bosses, subscribe generously to their support and let the reformers, harmless lunatics, amuse themselves as they will so long as they do not interfere with business?

Historical Novels in American History

BY PROFESSOR E. L. BOGART, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

The dangers and the value of the historical novel in connection with the study of history were interestingly set forth in a recent number of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*.¹ In a course for freshmen on the economic history of the United States, the following semester at the University of Illinois, inquiry was made as to the amount of reading along this line, so far at least as concerned American history, by the members of the class. As they were scarcely acquainted with the literature in this field, a list of books illustrating various phases of the economic and social development in the United States was drawn up and posted in the library. It is too early yet to speak of the results of this experiment, but as the list may be of interest to other teachers of history, it is reproduced herewith. Juvenile books are not included.

¹"The Historical Novel: Fiction as History," by Elbridge Colby; and "The Value of Historical Fiction," by Kate M. Munro. *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, VII, 264-269 (October, 1916).

LIST OF HISTORICAL NOVELS, ILLUSTRATING SOME PHASES OF ECONOMIC OR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN AMERICAN HISTORY. COMPILED BY E. L. BOGART.

1. COLONIAL PERIOD.

a. General.

- 1620. Austln, Mrs. J. G. "David Alden's Daughter." Twelve stories, each representing some noteworthy character or epoch of colonial times.
- 1789. Cooke, Grace M., and MacGowan, Alice. "Return." Georgia and the sea islands.
- 1680. Dickson, Harris. "The Black Wolf's Breed." Hero is a French captain who served under Bienville, governor of Louisiana, during the days of Louis XIV. Gives a good idea of frontier life in a new European settlement among the Indians.
- 1691. Dix, Beulah Marie. "Mistress Content Cradock." The religious exiles in the old colonizing days. Many local historical allusions.

1700. Hawthorne, Nathaniel. "Twice-told Tales." Many compact pictures of New England life in the eighteenth century.

1637-47. Henham, Ernest George. "The Plowshare and the Sword: A Tale of Empire." A story of Quebec, New England and Acadia; French and English methods of colonization; the Indians, etc.

1638. Holland, Josiah Gilbert. "The Bay Path." A story of early settlers in the Connecticut valley, aiming at quiet portraiture of life and character.

1759-63. Parker, Sir Gilbert. "The Seats of the Mighty." The struggle which dispossessed France and enthroned England in North America.

1750. Spielhagen, Friedrich. "The Block House on the Prairie." The life of the German Pioneers in America in middle of seventeenth century, and the difficulties and hardships of their existence on the outskirts of civilization.

b. By Colonies.

Maine.

1625. Thompson, D. P. "Gant Gurley." Border life.

Maryland.

1644. Goodwin, Maud Wilder. "Sir Christopher: A Romance of a Maryland Manor in 1644." Adventures of a Somersetshire knight, a Cavalier, in Maryland.

1636. Thruston, Lucy M. "Mistress Brent." Maryland.

Massachusetts.

1652. Dix, B. M. "The Making of Christopher Ferringham." Massachusetts in 1652, with some careful pictures of the times, Quaker persecutions.

1650. Hawthorne, Nathaniel. "The Scarlet Letter." One of the great moral tragedies of fiction. The Puritans in Massachusetts.

1640-50. Humphrey, Frank Pope. "A New England Cactus; and Other Tales." Village life in Massachusetts and Rhode Island in the Puritan times of the seventeenth century.

1675. Ingraham, J. H. "Captain Kyd." Massachusetts.

1686. Shaw, Adèle Marie. "The Coast of Freedom." The adventurous times of the first self-made American—Sir. Wm. Phipps, Governor of Massachusetts. Boston, time of Cotton Mather and the persecutions for witchcraft.

1665. Stimson, F. J. "King Noanett." Indentured servants in old Virginia and town lands in Massachusetts Bay.

New York.

1756. Barr, Amelia E. "The Bow of Orange Ribbon." The old Dutch folk of New

York, sturdy, quiet and godly folk, and the rakish and dare-devil soldiery of King George just before the War of Independence.

1765. Barr, Amelia E. "The Strawberry Handkerchief." New York in the Stamp Act period.

1750. Barrett, W., and Barron, E. "In Old New York."

1640-50. Belden, Jessie Van Zile. "Antonia." A tale of Colonial New York and Dutch colonists in Hudson River districts.

1689-90. Bynner, E. L. "The Begum's Daughter." A tale of New Amsterdam in 1689; the episode of the Leisler rebellion in New York is admirably told.

1757. Clark, Imogen. "The Dominie's Garden." Reproduces manners and atmosphere of Dutch society in eighteenth century.

1750. Cooper, J. Fenimore. "Satanstoe." Colonial life in Westchester County.

1750. Paulding, J. K. "The Dutchman's Fireside." New York.

1715. Rayner, Miss E. "Free to Serve: A Tale of Colonial New York." Manners and family life in early eighteenth century. New York.

1769-76. Roberts, C. G. D. "Barbara Ladd." Connecticut in 1769 and New York during the Revolution.

Plymouth Colony.

1620. Austin, Mrs. J. G. "Standish of Standish." A tale of the pilgrims of Plymouth Colony, and of Miles Standish.

1620. Austin, Mrs. J. G. "Betty Alden." The first-born of the Pilgrims. Sequel to "Standish of Standish."

1670. Austin, Mrs. J. G. "A Nameless Nobleman; and Dr. Le Baron and His Daughters." (Sequel.) Stories of Plymouth Colony.

1620. Cheney, H. V. "A Peep at the Pilgrims." Plymouth Colony.

1620. Child, L. M. "Hobomok." Plymouth Colony.

1620 (?). Dix, B. M. "Soldier Rigdale." Period of the Pilgrim Fathers.

1622. Mothey, J. L. "Merry-Mount." Plymouth Colony.

1650. Webb, Mrs. J. B. "The Pilgrims of New England." Plymouth Colony.

Virginia.

1607. Cooke, John Esten. "My Lady Pokahontas." Settling of Jamestown and trading with the Indians.

1763-65. Cooke, J. E. "The Virginia Comedians." Scenes of life in Williamsburg, once the centre of Southern life; the streets and mansions, taverns and theater, old courtly society.

1622. Goodwin, Maud W. "The Head of a Hundred in the Colony of Virginia."
 1676. Goodwin, Maud W. "White Aprons." Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia.
 1727. Johnston, Mary. "Audrey." Romantic story of Virginia; the hero, a rich proprietor and man of fashion; the heroine, the daughter of a backwoodsman.
 1621. Johnston, Mary. "To Have and to Hold." A beautiful maid-of-honor flees to Virginia with a cargo of brides sent out by the London Company. She marries a rough settler who defends her against her pursuers. Full of vigorous movement.
 1649-51. Johnston, Mary. "Prisoners of Hope." Romance of Virginia in Restoration times. Hero is a convict sold into slavery, who joins rebellion led by Sir John Berkeley. Much description of landscape and stately homes of Virginia.
 1649-51. Kennedy, Sara Beaumont. "The Wooing of Judith." Virginia at the time when it was the refuge of the Cavaliers, after the execution of Charles II.
 1609. Kester, Vaughan. "John o' Jamestown." Captain John Smith and the settling of Jamestown.
 1676. Tucker, St. George. "Hansford." Bacon's rebellion.
 1682. Wilkins, Mary E. "The Heart's Highway." Deals with Virginia under Charles II and the tobacco riots after Bacon's rebellion.

2. THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

1781. Chambers, R. W. "The Reckoning." The war as it affected the great landed families in the northern part of New York.
 1780. Churchill, Winston. "Richard Carvel." Maryland and its fine old landed gentry. Autobiography dealing with period of war.
 1767-76. Coffin, Charles C. "Daughters of the Revolution and their Times." Outbreak of the Revolution, the state of public feeling, Boston Tea Party, Boston massacre, etc.
 1767-76. Devereux, Mary. "From Kingdom to Colony." Life in New England in the early days of the Revolution.
 1767. Farmer, James. "Brinton Eliot: From Yale to Yorktown." Undergraduate life at Yale before the war, and adventures with the American army. Fiercely anti-British in sentiment.
 1780. Ford, P. L. "Janice Meredith." Battles, historical incidents, celebrities presented with accuracy.
 1757-80. Frederic, Harold. "In the Valley." Life among the Dutch of the Mohawk Valley. Deeply prejudiced against the British cause.
 1757-80. Kennedy, J. P. "Horseshoe Robinson." South Carolina during the war, founded upon personal memories of actual events.
 1773-6. Kenyon, Charles. "Won in Warfare." Frontier fighting at the outbreak of the War of Independence.
 1776-9. Rayner, Emma. "Doris Kingsley." South Carolina.
 1775-7. Thompson, Daniel Pierce. "The Green Mountain Boys" and "The Rangers" (sequel). A romance of the settlement of Vermont, showing quarrels between Vermont and New York.
 1775. Tilton, Dwight. "My Lady Laughter." The siege of Boston.

3. FROM THE REVOLUTION TO THE WAR OF 1812 (1783-1814), INCLUDING THE WAR OF 1812.

- 1757-1804. Atherton, Gertrude. "The Conqueror." The true and romantic story of the birth, life and death of Alexander Hamilton, statesman, orator, and soldier. (Originally intended for a biography.)
 1803. Banks, Nancy H. "Round Anvil Rock." Incidents of early days of Kentucky.
 1812-14. Barr, Amelia E. "The Belle of Bowling Green." Life among the wealthy Dutch inhabitants of New York, who lived aloof from the war, but were not unaffected by it.
 1791-2. Barr, Amelia E. "The Maid of Maiden Lane." The year 1791 in New York City—a momentous year. Shall New York or Philadelphia be the seat of government? Influx of French refugees, division of opinion regarding English rights in lost colonies, etc.
 1786-7. Bellamy, Edward. "The Duke of Stockbridge." Massachusetts: Shay's Rebellion.
 1800. Cable, G. W. "The Grandissimes." New Orleans and its Creole inhabitants as they were a century ago.
 1803. Carpenter, Edward Childs. "The Code of Victor Jallot." New Orleans.
 1780-1804. Churchill, Winston. "The Crossing." Chronicle of the great westward movement into the Mississippi valley.
 1811. Eggleston, Edward. "Rory." Life in a town of southern Indiana at the time of the Tippecanoe campaign.
 1790. Hale, E. Everett. "East and West: A Story of New Ohio." Settling of Ohio by New Englanders at close of eighteenth century.
 1803. Hale, E. Everett. "Philip Nolan's Friends." Time of the Louisiana purchase.
 1812-28. Hancock, Albert E. "Bronson of the Rabble." Philadelphia.

1800. Judd, Sylvester. "Margaret." New England life and character.
1800. Stowe, Mrs. Harriet Beecher. "The Minister's Wooing." Newport people early in nineteenth century, especially their Puritanical life and their sombre religious creed.
1800. Stowe, Mrs. Harriet Beecher. "Old-time Folks" and "Sam Lawson's Oldtown Fireside Stories." Portraiture of character and manners in a Massachusetts village.
4. FROM THE WAR OF 1812 TO THE CIVIL WAR (1814-1860).
- a. The East.
1861. Beecher, Henry Ward. "Norwood, or Village Life in New England." Life in a thriving village just before the war.
- 1813-53. Judd, Sylvester. "Margaret: A Tale of the Real and Ideal, of Blight and Bloom." Life of a New England village.
- 1820-30. Potter, David. "The Lady of the Spur." Southwest New Jersey.
1825. Sedgwick, Catherine Maria. "Hope Leslie." Primitive life in a New England homestead.
1860. Smith, F. Hopkinson. "The Fortunes of Oliver Horn." Society at Washington and New York and in the South before and during the Civil War.
- b. The Middle West before the Civil War.
1850. Allen, James Lane. "A Kentucky Cardinal." American manners.
1850. Banks, Nancy H. "Oldfield." Life and manners in a country town in Kentucky.
1848. Bonner, Geraldine. "The Emigrant Trail." Missouri frontier at the time of the emigration to California.
1856. Brown, Katherine Holland. "Diane." Story of a communistic settlement of French people on the Mississippi; the traffic in runaway slaves, John Brown, Abolitionists, etc.
1856. Curwood, J. Oliver. "The Courage of Captain Plum." Shores of Lake Michigan; Mormons.
- 1830-35. Eggleston, Edward. "The Grays: A Story of Illinois." Detailed pictures of turbulent life of the pioneers. Lincoln is introduced.
- 1830-35. Eggleston, Edward. "The Hoosier Schoolmaster." Picture of the lawless, homely pioneer life of mid-century Indiana, by a man who was an itinerant preacher in the West, and knew the life intimately.
1831. Gale, O. M., and Wheeler, Harriet. "A Knight of the Wilderness." Middle West; settlers and Indians, Lincoln and Davis in early period.
- 1800-25. Irving, Washington. "Adventures of Captain Bonneville." Adventure in Western North America.
1830. Kirkland, Joseph. "Zury, the Meanest Man in Spring County" and "The McVeys: an Episode." Illinois in the pioneer days, portraying colorless life of prairies.
1830. Kirkman, M. M. "The Romance of Gilbert Holmes." The far west in the thirties.
1860. Lloyd, John Uri. "Springtown on the Pike." Kentucky in the early sixties.
1850. Miller, Lewis B. "The White River Raft." A raft voyage down the Mississippi River; river life.
1800. Pidgin, C. F. "Blennerhassett." Time of Aaron Burr.
1840. Roberts, C. H. "Down the O-hi-O." Rural life among the Quakers on the Ohio before the war.
1838. Tourg e, A. W. "Figs and Thistles." Realistic stories of the rough and rollicking life in pioneer Ohio.
1830. Trollope, Frances. "The Domestic Manners of the Americans." Result of a three years' life in America for business purposes. Keen and caustic, it aroused resentment in the United States.
- c. The Far West before the Civil War.
1836. Atherton, Gertrude. "The Valiant Runaway." California before the Union.
1849. Canfield, C. L. "The City of Six." Placer mining in California.
1840. Carpenter, E. Childs. "Captain Courtesy." California.
- 1830-35. Harte, Bret. "Gabriel Conway." A sensational story of California in the lawless early fifties.
1860. Harte, Bret. "On the Old Trail." Life in Sierra Nevada is presented realistically.
- d. Slavery and the South before the Civil War.
1850. Adams, M. "The Sable Cloud." Slavery and southern society.
1850. Cable, G. W. "Dr. Sevier." The prosperous world of New Orleans before the war.
- 1855-6. Conway, Moncure Daniel. "Pins and Palm." Detailed account of conditions in the North and South just before the war. A pair of friends, northerner and southerner, at Harvard, quarrel on slavery questions, and each agrees to reside a year in the other's country.
1800. Cooke, J. E. "Leather Stocking and Silk." Valley of Virginia.
1850. Mrs. Dupuy. "The Planter's Daughter." Slavery and southern society.
1850. Eggleston, George Cary. "Dorothy South." A love story of Virginia just before the war.
1857. Eggleston, George C. "Two Gentlemen of Virginia." The slave question.

1850-60. Harris, Joel Chandler. "Free Joe." Pictures of Georgian life before and after the war; dwells on kindlier aspects of relation between master and slave.

1850. Hungerford, J. "The Old Plantation." Slavery and southern society.

1850. Ingraham, J. H. "The Sunny South." Slavery and southern society.

1850-60. Kelly, Florence F. "Rhoda of the Undergrounds." Question of slavery.

1815. Kennedy, J. P. "Swallow Barn." Virginian life.

1830. Richardson, Norval. "The Lead of Honor." Natchez, Mississippi.

1850. Stowe, Mrs. Harriet Beecher. "Uncle Tom's Cabin." An emotional account of the evils of slavery.

1840. Tiernan, Mary Spear. "Homoselle." Life and manners on the James River in the ante-bellum period.

1830. Tiernan, Mary Spear. "Suzette." A placid picture of family life in Richmond of an old-fashioned and genial society, which looked on slavery very much as a sacred institution.

1850. Woolson, Constance Fenimore. "East Angels." Home life in Georgia before the war.

5. Civil War.

1861-5. Bachellor, Irving. "Eben Holden." New York journalistic attitude during the war.

1861-5. Child, L. M. "A Romance of the Republic." Privateering in the Civil War.

1860-5. Churchill, Winston. "The Crisis." An honest and painstaking attempt to explain the causes of the Civil War.

1861. Eggleston, George Cary. "The Master of Warlock." Virginia in the early days of the war.

1861-5. Hancock, Albert Elmer. "Henry Bourland the Passing of a Cavalier." The author, a Northerner, tries to understand the South during the war and reconstruction. Urgent problems are handled suggestively.

1861-5. Harris, Joel Chandler. "Tales of the Home Fold in Peace and War." Stories on all kinds of subjects from negroes to babies, dealing with the people at home in Georgia during the war.

1861-5. Morris, Gouverneur. "Aladdin O'Brien." A Northern story of the whole course of the war, but fairly impartial. Opens in New England, but follows the story in the South.

1861-5. Naylor, J. Ball. "The Kentuckians." Domestic scenes apart from the war in Ohio.

1861-6. Page, Thomas Nelson. "The Burial of the Guns, and Other Stories." The South before and after the war, with affec-

tion for the old patriarchal society, but without blindness to its darker side.

1861-6. Page, T. N. "Red Rock." Civil war and reconstruction. Red Rock plantation and its strange vicissitudes of ownership.

1861-5. Page, T. N. "Two Little Confederates." Two boys left on a plantation while the men are at war.

1861-5. Seawell, M. E. "The Victory." Virginia plantation during the Civil war.

1861. Webster, Henry K. "Traitor or Loyalist." North Carolina; the blockade and the cotton traders.

6. Since the Civil War.

1865. Adams, Andy. "The Outlet." Realistic narrative of a great cattle drive from Texas to the North.

Benton. "On Many Seas." An American sailor's experience.

Bisland, Elizabeth. "A Candle of Understanding." Scene is laid in a sugar plantation in Louisiana.

1870. Bonner, Geraldine. "The Pioneer." Nevada and California.

1865-80. Bradley, A. G. "Sketches from Old Virginia."

1865-80. Cable, G. W. "John March, Southerner." A story of reconstruction. Scene is laid in Suez, an old town battered by the recent Civil War, and now the meeting place of Northern promoters and irreconcilable Southerners.

1867. Carr, Sarah Pratt. "The Iron Way." California, when the Central Pacific Railway was being completed.

Coolidge. "Hidden Water." Cattle and sheep wars on the ranges of Arizona.

1865. Dixon, Thomas, Jr. "The Clansman." Story of the Ku Klux Klan.

Foote, Mary Hallock. "Cœur d'Alene." Silver miners in Idaho.

Garland, H. "The Lion's Paw."

Garland, H. "The Forest Ranger."

Glasgow, Ellen. "The Deliverance." A tobacco plantation in Virginia.

1865. Hough, Emerson. "The Girl at the Half-way House." Picture of life in the West at the time of the general movement to undeveloped lands that took place after the Civil War.

1870. Jackson, Helen Hunt. "Ramona." Written to expose the injustice of the United States Government's policy toward the Indians. Scene is laid in southern California.

Kemp, Matt. "Boss Tom." The anthracite coal miners.

1890. Norris, Frank. "The Octopus." The wheat ranches of California and the Southern Pacific Railroad.

1890. Norris, Frank. "The Pit." The wheat market of Chicago.
- Parker. "The Magnetic North." Gold seekers in Alaska.
1870. Paterson, Arthur Henry. "Son of the Plains." Exciting story of the Santa Fé trail in the early seventies, before the rail-ways were built.
1900. Richardson. "The Long Day." Women wage-earners in New York City.
1900. Sinclair, Upton. "The Jungle." The beef-packing industry in Chicago.
1865. Thanet, Octave. "Expiation." Social conditions in Arkansas at the close of the war.
1870. White, Stewart Edward. "The Blazed Trail." Realistic account of logging in Michigan.
1870. White, S. E. "The Riverman." (Sequel to the above.)
1870. White, S. E. "The Westerners." Story of the western plains in the days of frontier wars with the Sioux Indians.
- Winter. "A Prize to the Hardy." The wheat farms of Minnesota.
- Wright. "Where Copper was King." Copper mining on Lake Superior.

Notes from the Historical Field

An interesting method of teaching ancient history has been adopted by Miss Florence Bernd, of Macon, Ga. Miss Bernd has encouraged her pupils to sketch cartoons illustrating various phases of ancient history. The cartoons are not only interesting sketches, but they are accompanied with many remarks showing that the pupils in the class appreciate the thoughts and actions of the ancient Greeks.

The Annual Year Book for 1917 of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace has appeared. Instead of being put out of business by the devastating war, the trustees of the Endowment profess to see in existing conditions an opportunity to reconstruct the international organization of the world. The trustees declared in April, 1917, their belief that "the most effectual means of promoting durable international peace is to prosecute the war against the imperial government of Germany to final victory for democracy in accordance with the policy declared by the President of the United States." At the same time the trustees appropriated \$500,000 to aid in the restoration of devastated homes in France, Belgium, Serbia, and Russia.

Mr. Howard C. Hill, of the Milwaukee State Normal School, has accepted the position of head of the History Department of the University High School of the University of Chicago. Mr. Hill has been active in organizations of history teachers in the Middle West. He is president of the Association of Wisconsin Normal School Teachers.

A revised edition of Professor P. O. Ray's "Introduction to Political Parties and Practical Politics" has appeared. The revised copy includes new material relating to national conventions, woman suffrage and organization of women votes, preferential voting, absentee voting, and Tammany Hall organization.

"History" for July, 1917, contains a lengthy article upon "Irish National Tradition," by Alice Stopford Green. The writer remarks that "statesmen have forgotten to reckon with the power of a thousand years of national tradition, and its hidden forces of spiritual resistance." Other articles deal with the history of education and with the problems of teaching history in girls' secondary schools.

Professor Carl Becker contributes to the Minnesota History Bulletin for May, 1917, an article upon "The Monroe Doctrine and the War." The writer holds a triumphant Germany would be more ominous than the Holy Alliance ever was; England defeated would be a more fatal reverse for the United States in 1917 than the restoration of the South American republics to Spain would have been in 1823.

SCHOOLS AND THE WAR.

Since last April many agencies in different parts of the country have been at work striving to present to the teachers and pupils of the country the facts concerning the present world conflict. Some of these efforts have come to the attention of the editor of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, and brief notes concerning them are given below. It is not supposed that this list is at all comprehensive. The editor will welcome notes concerning such activities in any part of the country, and will be glad to receive copies of literature bearing upon the war which have been prepared by local agencies. Will the readers of the MAGAZINE aid in making this list more complete by sending such publications to the editor?

The Committee on Public Information, Washington, D. C., has organized a sub-division of its work, entitled, "The Division of Civic and Educational Co-operation," of which Professor Guy Stanton Ford, of the University of Minnesota, is director. This division is issuing a series of pamphlets relating to the war. The first issued was "President Wilson's War Message and the Facts Behind It." A second pamphlet was "How the War Came to America." It has recently issued a "National Service Handbook" of 246 pages containing information about domestic welfare; European war relief; religious organizations; professional men and women; war finance; industry, commerce and labor; agriculture and the food supply; the civil service; medical and nursing service; the army; the navy; aviation; together with the names of public and semi-public organizations and maps and other illustrations.

The Division of Civic and Educational Co-operation of the Committee on Public Information has in course of preparation "An Anthology of War Prose and Poetry" and a series of war information pamphlets in which the following are announced: "The Nation in Arms" by Secretaries Lane and Baker; "The Government of Germany," by Professor C. D. Hazen; "From the Spectator to Participant," by Professor A. C. McLaughlin, and "American Loyalty by Citizens of German Origin."

The Committee on Public Information issues a daily paper called "The Official Bulletin," giving official announcements in connection with governmental business. The subscription rate is five dollars a year.

A group of historians met in Washington in the spring and organized a "National Board for Historical Service." The Board has been actively engaged during the summer in co-operating with the Committee on Public Information, the Bureau of Education, and various other departments and officials in Washington. It furnished several articles for THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE in June, 1917, and circulated a number of copies of that issue, together with

reprints of Professor McLaughlin's article. It entered into active correspondence and co-operation with historians throughout the country in the proper presentation of the war to students in schools and colleges.

The National Board for Historical Service, as mentioned elsewhere in this number of the MAGAZINE, has supervised the preparation of the series of articles for ancient, English, European and American history which will appear in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for the next few months.

Through the National Board for Historical Service, prizes to school teachers have been offered in fourteen States, as follows: New York, New Jersey, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Ohio, and California.

These prizes are to be given for the best essays upon the subject, "Why the United States is at War," and are offered in separate groups to teachers in public high schools and to teachers in public elementary schools. The prizes vary from \$75 to \$10 in each group in each one of the thirteen States. The essays will be read and the awards made under the direction of the Board.

State Commissioner Calvin N. Kendall, of New Jersey, issued to the schools of the State a letter addressed to teachers and school officials in which he emphasized the peculiar duties and obligations under which history teachers labor at the present time.

The State Historical Society of Iowa has begun the publication of a series of small pamphlets entitled, "Iowa and War," to be published monthly. The first number (July, 1917) is a description of Old Fort Snelling, by M. L. Hansen. The number for August gives an account of "Enlistments from Iowa During the Civil War," and is prepared by J. E. Briggs.

"Sources of Material of the War" is the title of a pamphlet issued by the State Normal School at Warrensburg, Mo., dated August, 1917, and signed by the president of the school, Dr. E. L. Hendricks.

The address of Secretary of War Baker upon "The War and Colleges," delivered in Washington on May 5, 1917, has been printed by the American Association for International Conciliation (New York City).

The United States Bureau of Education will publish shortly a pamphlet entitled, "History and the Great War; Opportunity for History Teachers." This has been prepared by the National Board for Historical Service in co-operation with a number of historians.

The Philadelphia School Mobilization Committee has distributed to the school teachers of Philadelphia a series of pamphlets bearing upon the war. The first was a conversation between a father and his son upon the character and nature of the war entitled, "Bobbie and the War." The second was a general statement of "What the United States Stands for in the War," and the third entitled, "Democracy and Autocracy Compared," dealt largely with the government of Prussia.

The Toledo (O.) Patriotic League has issued a four-page bulletin entitled, "The Cause of America," in which the position is taken that the spirit of the patriots who fought at Lexington, Bunker Hill, Yorktown, Gettysburg, Santiago and Manila Bay is with us in the new war for freedom.

"Why We Are at War" is the title of a small book published by Harper & Brothers (fifty cents, net), which contains President Wilson's messages from January 22 to April 2, 1917, together with the presidential proclamation of April 6 and the message to the American people of April 15.

Bibliographies of the European war appeared in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for June, 1917, prepared by Professor C. D. Hazen and Professor George M. Dutcher.

Mr. Herman H. B. Meyer, Chief Bibliographer of the Library of Congress, has completed a pamphlet entitled, "The United States at War; Organizations and Literature," which gives references to general bibliographies, and also mentions the literature published by many unofficial voluntary organizations.

It is announced that the National Geographic Society will issue in the near future in the "National Geographic Magazine" a complete story of the flags of the world illustrated with a remarkable series of 1,200 flags in accurate colors, and giving also the seals of the various States, the flags of the rulers of other nations of the world, and some historic banners of American history.

The faculty of Columbia University began the publication in April, 1917, of a series of practical papers entitled, "Columbia University War Papers."

"American Industry in War Time" is the title of a semi-monthly periodical published in Washington, D. C.

At the Harvard Summer School of Arts and Sciences, four lectures a week were given upon the subject, "Historical Aspects of the Present War." Among the topics treated were "The War and the Editor," by Professor C. H. Haskins; "Historical Antecedents of the War," by Professor A. C. Coolidge; "Phases of Actual War in France," by Commandant Hall Azam; "Economic Aspects of the War," by Professor E. F. Gay; "Russia and the War," by Professor R. H. Lord; "South America and the War," by Dr. J. Klein; "Some Lessons of American Military History," by Professor R. M. Johnston; and "The United States and the War," by Professors A. B. Hart and William MacDonald.

HOLD TO SCHOOL STANDARDS DURING WAR.

PROCLAMATION.

Whereas, In every great national crisis it is imperative that the people maintain a sane and reasonable relation to the spiritual forces without which the nation cannot endure; and

Whereas, The unreflecting may be led to urge their children to remain out of school or to attend only intermittently during the crisis of this war period; and

Whereas, It is the wish of the national Government, and it is my opinion, that the schools and colleges should remain open and that the efficiency of the schools should be increased and not diminished, and it is impossible to maintain or promote the spiritual efficiency of our people unless attendance at school be maintained at a maximum and teachers be secured whose spiritual concern and professional equipment are of the highest,

Therefore, I, Martin Grove Brumbaugh, Governor of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, having in mind the abiding good of our people, the continuing glory of our country and the highest patriotic service one generation renders to another, do hereby call upon and request that in Pennsylvania education be kept at a high standard and that attendance at school and college of our children and youths be urged and supported by public opinion and by all public agencies that avowedly seek to form the public mind.

There is immediate need of instruction along all patriotic and practical lines. The nation needs trained men, and trained men are best secured through right education, supplemented by actual contact with the realities of life. The

nation needs men of lofty thoughts, whose ideals are, when brought into guidance, the type of national sanity and progress, and these men are best secured through right education.

Both for actual accomplishing power and for wise leadership, the nation must depend upon her schools. Let them, then, in this war crisis, be maintained and attended in the largest way consistent with national service and national honor.

MARTIN GROVE BRUMBAUGH, Governor of Pennsylvania.
Harrisburg, August 25, 1917.

A NEW MODERN HISTORY SYLLABUS.

"An Outline of Recent European History, 1815-1916" has been prepared by Professor Clarence Perkins, of Ohio State University, and published by the College Book Store at Columbus (price, 50 cents). The outline is given in considerable detail, as is shown by the analysis of the topic, "The German Empire Since 1870." Detailed references are given for a number of sub-topics; thus, under "Germany Since 1870," there are reading references on the following topics: "The Governments of Germany;" "German Ideas of the State;" "The Beginnings of Socialism in Germany;" "Bismarck's Hostile Measures toward Socialism;" "The German Social Insurance Laws;" "The German Protective Tariff;" "The German Colonial Expansion;" "Anecdotes of Bismarck;" "Personality and Ability of Emperor William II.," and others.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE SINCE 1870.

1. The governments of Germany.
 - A. The imperial government.
 - a. The Emperor and his ministers.
 - b. The Bundesrath.
 - c. The Reichstag.
 - d. Illiberal features of the system.
 - B. The government of the separate States.
 - a. Prussia.
 1. The King and his ministers.
 2. The Herrenhaus.
 3. The Abgeordnetenhaus.
 4. Local government.
 5. Illiberal features.
 - b. Bavaria.
 - c. Saxony, Wurttemberg, Baden, and the lesser States.
 - C. Prospects of political reform.
 - a. Electoral reform in Prussia.
 - b. Redistribution of seats in the Reichstag and the Prussian Landtag.
 - c. Demand for ministerial responsibility.
2. Rise of the great national parties, and the main political issues, 1871-1890.
 - A. The period, 1871-1878.
 - a. The main parties, their principles, and their approximate strength.
 - b. The main issue—the Kulturkampf.
 1. Causes and character.
 2. The purposes and character of the anti-clerical legislation.
 3. Effects of this legislation. Why Bismarck decided to give up this policy.
 - c. Liberal legislation of the period.
 - B. The period, 1878-1890.
 - a. The main parties, their principles, and their approximate strength.
 - b. Bismarck and the policy of protective tariffs.
 1. Reasons which led him to favor this policy.
 2. Extent to which it has been adopted.
3. Effects.
 - c. Bismarck and socialism.
 1. Early history of German socialism. Ferdinand Lassalle and his work. Karl Marx, his theories, and his work.
 2. Bismarck's motives in attacking socialism.
 3. His anti-socialist legislation and its effects.
 4. Social reform legislation passed under Bismarck.
 - a. Reasons for Bismarck's support of this legislation.
 - b. The Sickness Insurance Law.
 - c. The Accident Insurance Law.
 - d. The Old Age Pension Law.
 - e. Effects of this legislation.
 5. Disputes over the army—the "Military Septennate."
 - d. The beginning of colonial expansion.
 1. Why Germany had no colonies.
 2. Bismarck's early policy.
 3. Germany's need for colonies.
 4. Character and extent of her colonial empire in 1914. Its value and effects on German development.
3. German development and problems since 1890.
 - A. Character and policies of Kaiser Wilhelm II.
 - B. Growth of German industry and commerce.
 - a. The industrial and agricultural sections of Germany. Character and numbers of the population in the various sections.
 - b. The growth of the great German industries. Location, character, and importance.
 - c. German foreign trade and mercantile marine.
 - d. Causes of the rapid growth of German trade and commerce. Why the German so often is able to get the best of his competitors.
 - e. Organization of industrial corporations in Germany—the Syndicates.
 - C. State socialism in Germany.
 - a. Social reform projects undertaken by the government and in prospect.
 - b. What the German cities do for the people—municipal socialism.
 - c. State enterprises.
 1. Transportation.
 2. Industry.
 3. Agriculture and forestry.
 - D. The Social Democratic Party and its work.
 - a. Voting strength and representation in the Reichstag in the past two decades.
 - b. Reasons for its growth.
 - c. Demands of the party. Extent to which its leaders are breaking away from the Marxian dogmas.
 - d. Socialism and the labor unions.
 1. History of trade unionism in Germany.
 2. Character and strength of the unions. Their methods and influence.
 3. Connection of the unions with the Social Democratic Party.
 - E. German military and naval strength.
 - a. Growth of the army. Its state of efficiency. The great increase of 1913.
 - b. Rapid growth of the navy since 1900.
 1. Causes. Was it necessary?
 2. Present and probable future strength.
 3. Effects.
 - c. The cost of empire. The revenues of the empire and of the separate States. Character and weight of taxation. Rapid growth of the imperial debt. Prospects.
 - F. German foreign policy in recent years (to be considered in detail in a later topic).

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

HALL, CLIFTON R. Andrew Johnson, Military Governor of Tennessee. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1916. Pp. iv, 233. \$1.50.

Professor Hall has made a study of the career of Andrew Johnson from the time of his appointment in 1862 to be military governor of Tennessee until he left the State in February, 1865, to become Vice-President of the United States. As the preface states, Professor Hall has based his account largely upon the Johnson Papers in the Library of Congress, upon the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies, and upon contemporary newspapers—notably the "Nashville Union." The files of the anti-administration papers of Memphis are so broken as to be of little value, and there is, as Professor Hall points out, a great dearth of other material to show the Confederate point of view. Yet the study is straightforward, ably presented, and gives an excellent picture of conditions in Tennessee as well as of Johnson himself during the extraordinary period when the Federal Government in the person of the military governor was conducting the affairs of a recalcitrant State. There is nothing striking or especially new in the study; but it will be valuable to anyone who wishes to know thoroughly one aspect of the Civil War, and to understand Andrew Johnson and his policy as President of the United States. For as Professor Hall makes clear, what he was as United States Senator, he was as military governor; what he was as military governor, he was as President. "Conscious of his superior ability, and impeded at every turn, in his efforts to secure the preferments he felt his worth demanded, by lack of wealth and social standing, the monopolies of the plantation-owning, slaveholding aristocrats in his State, he early developed an intense bitterness against the artificial distinctions of society. Far from diminishing, this feeling grew upon him with years, poisoned his whole life, and impaired his character. . . . His every speech and every action as a public man reiterated the slogan of Andrew Jackson, the idol of his boyhood and the inspiration of his whole career: 'Our Union! it must be preserved!' Of its overthrow he could not conceive. . . . The studied contempt with which the pro-Southern citizens of Nashville treated him stung his pride, caused him to draw further back within himself, and made him still more resentful. Deputed to extend the protecting ægis of law and orderly government over the State, his utter lack of finesse made him appear to be brandishing a club to frighten the people into subjection, and their animosity centred upon him." Johnson's passionate outburst to John M. Palmer, who was endeavoring to make clear the attitude of Northern anti-slavery men toward slavery—"Damn the negroes; I am fighting these traitorous aristocrats, their masters!"—is likewise significant.

The first chapter gives a clear picture of Tennessee, with its eastern counties settled by small farmers unconditionally loyal to the Union, its middle third wavering between the two contending sections, and the western district unequivocally on the side of the Confederacy. The progress toward secession is traced, and the chapter closes with the appointment of Johnson to be military governor, with the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers. The second chapter is a succinct account of Johnson's life till he became military governor, and is especially good. The next five chapters are concerned with Johnson's administration, and bring out the conflicts of authority between him and Buell, the extraordinary difficulty of developing any considerable

Union sentiment in Tennessee, and so restoring the State to its place in the Union, and the reconstruction in 1863-4. In the eighth chapter the Presidential campaign of 1864 in Tennessee is presented, and the ninth chapter covers the process of reorganization until April, 1865, when Brownlow came in as governor, the legislature met at Nashville and the thirteenth amendment was ratified. The tenth chapter, which the author entitles, "A Governor-of-All-Work," shows the amazing variety of tasks Johnson was called upon to do or to direct, and is one of the best in the book. The conclusion is the poorest part of the whole study. It is unfortunate in arrangement of material as well as in its many awkward expressions, and has the effect of an anti climax. The book as a whole is too good to be marred by its closing chapter. There is a full index.

LOIS KIMBALL MATHEWS.

The University of Wisconsin.

FITE, EMERSON DAVID. History of the United States. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1916. Pp. vi, 575. \$1.60.

The first impression which this book makes upon the reader is that it is unusually good. A critical examination convinces him that the first impression was correct, and that another first-class text-book has been made available for use in secondary schools.

Of 530 pages of text, some 165 pages are given to the period before 1783, 227 pages to the period 1783 to 1865, and 138 pages to the period since 1865. In the colonial period, the author aims to stress the development of geographical knowledge and "the dependence of events in the colonies upon contemporary English history, and the close connection between the West Indies and the mainland as parts of the same colonial empire." In the national period, social and industrial development are treated along with the political history. As is indicated above by the pages given to the different periods, considerable attention is given to the period since 1865. The story is brought down to 1916, including a discussion of the European war and its bearings upon American history to the time when the book went to press. In these days when history is being made so rapidly, any published account is "behind the times" before it can be brought from the press and put into classroom use. A new book, or the revision of an older one, which does bring the story to date, is always welcomed by teachers.

In addition to being recent, this book is also scholarly, readable and teachable. It has 44 maps, of which nine are in color, and 110 illustrations. The illustrations are well selected and properly set in the text, and some of them are unusually good. A series of four pictures (pages 104-105) shows the "Growth of a Pioneer Home" from the first cabin in the wilderness to a well-developed farm, with good buildings, fences, silo, windmill, and good roads and bridges. Another (page 233) is a diagram showing the working of Whitney's Cotton Gin. Still another (page 284) shows the original McCormick reaper. One wishes that the author had given a series of pictures to show the development of the reaper and the development of transportation, as he did the growth of the pioneer home.

At the end of each chapter the author has given a list of "General References," "Special Topics" (with references), and "Illustrative Material." Many of the books referred to are usually not available for most high school classes, and some may be beyond their comprehension. With the growth of public libraries in even smaller cities, however, and the usual willingness on the part of librarians to receive suggestions for the purchase of books, such lists are useful in building up a good historical library in the

community, to which, of course, high school pupils and teachers will have access. To make the book more teachable, the author has also given at the end of each chapter an unusually good list of "Suggestive Questions."

The appendix contains the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution. Most text-books give the first and last mentioned documents, but, unfortunately, they do not all include the Articles of Confederation. In high schools where library facilities are limited, it is a point of importance, in selecting a text-book, to note what documents are given in the appendix. The Ordinance of 1787 might well be included in the list.

WILSON P. SHORTRIDGE.

University of Minnesota.

JEFFRIES, JOUETT. *War Diary of an American Woman to the Proclamation of the Holy War, 1914*. New York: The Fatherland Corporation, 1915. Pp. 160.

The author of this book has been so carried away by admiration for German efficiency that she accepts unhesitatingly every statement made by the German government and even by irresponsible individual Germans. The book is, therefore, full of the most ridiculously inaccurate and prejudiced statements which could hardly have been made by an educated person who had read the official documents telling of the events preceding the outbreak of the war published by many of the belligerent governments. The writer gives an interesting picture of what she saw in Germany during the first months of the war, but its value is much lowered by her credulity of everything emanating from German sources and bitterness against anything coming from English or French sources. The character of the book suggests that its publication may have been financed so as to permit many copies to be distributed gratis in order to influence American opinion. No librarian should waste money by buying it.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

FORMAN, S. E. *First Lessons in American History*. New York: The Century Co., 1916. Pp. 243. 65 cents.

This book is written for beginners. Much of the subject-matter is centered about leading men in America. Three picture maps of the United States in black and white make clear the shifting frontier line from 1750 to 1860. The questions preceding each chapter are carefully worded and stimulating. The review questions at the close of the chapters are inclusive and searching. The book covers the entire field of American history. Consequently the treatment of each period is meager, but the style is lucid and sufficiently concrete for children in the fifth and sixth grades. The pictures are well chosen, but their reproduction leaves much to be desired. There are no references of any kind in the book.

SARAH A. DYNES.

State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

HAMILTON, WALTON HALE (editor). *Current Economic Problems*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1915. Pp. xxxix, 789. \$3.75.

This book of readings has been used by the editor, and may be used by others to meet two needs. "The first is that of a course in current problems which complements a separate course in 'principles.' The second is a course in general economics covering both fields." The book might easily be compared and contrasted with the "Materials for the Study of Elementary Economics," edited by Professors

Marshall, Wright and Field, and published also by the University of Chicago. Professor Hamilton includes 382 readings, averaging two pages each; the "Materials" has only 267 articles in a book of 927 pages. Moreover, in the "Materials" there are 61 articles of five pages or more, whereas the "Current Problems" has only two articles covering five full pages. Professor Hamilton has treated this material under fourteen heads; two of these are historical, two deal with general conditions, seven with particular economic problems, and three with social reforms. In the "Materials" four of the twenty subdivisions are theoretical, four deal with general conditions, eleven are on economic problems, and one on social reform. These lists of topics indicate a better balance in "Current Economic Problems." There is, however, more theory and less material really usable for reference in that volume than in "Materials."

Hamilton's "Readings" have been selected and condensed with great care. Because they are rather "solid," they will probably be more useful for reference than for study, for advanced students rather than college freshmen. In spite of the large amount of general or theoretical material, even the more general divisions include such descriptive accounts as those on the "Economy of the Manor and Gild," on "Medieval Tricks of Trade," and on "English Industry on the Eve of the Revolution," which are practical and interesting rather than theoretical or explanatory. Three divisions, those on the "Problems of Railway Regulation," the "Problems of Economic Insecurity," and the part of "The Problems of Population" on immigration, are of particular practical value. The nature of the articles on immigration may be suggested by citing the names of a few authors whose writings are quoted: Ross, Warne, Ogg, Roberts, Hourwich, Lauck, Hall, Claghorn and Weyl.

For use with the "Current Economic Problems," Professor Hamilton has prepared a booklet on "Exercises in Current Economics." For each group of readings this booklet gives an introduction, questions based on the readings themselves, and questions dealing with problems connected with the readings. As would be expected from the general nature of the main book, considerably more than half of the material in the "Exercises" is given to problems, and comparatively little is devoted to questions on the readings. Moreover, these questions are quite general in nature.

R. L. ASHLEY.

Pasadena High School.

ASHLEY, ROSCOE LEWIS. *The New Civics: A Textbook for Secondary Schools*. The Macmillan Co., 1917. Pp. xix, 420. \$1.20.

The present-day elaborate demands for the more comprehensive study of civics in the high school make the problem of text writing for this work increasingly difficult because of the many diverse subjects which require adequate treatment. A feeling pervades educational circles that the study of civics must have even greater responsibilities placed upon it in the preparation of the citizen for his place in society. In response to the demands for a text which would cover this enlarged field there is placed upon the market the subject of this review.

The "New Civics," as stated by the author, "deals with American citizens in their collective relations to one another." It places emphasis "first upon the citizen and citizenship; secondly, upon the 'public' as an organized group of citizens, and thirdly, on the activities of the governments which the citizens have created and through which the public cares for many of its collective interests." The author designs the book to be used in three possible ways, "for supplementary work in connection with American his-

tory, or for a short course in American government, or for a thorough course in civics."

Part I, "The Citizen and Society," consists of a more or less abstract discussion of political, social, and economic theory: The effort to present in ninety pages the material for a study of our entire social organism results in a rather fragmentary and inadequate treatment. One is impressed with the fact that there are too many classifications for a clear understanding of the subjects by the pupil. This part, however, is intended as introductory to the main topic. The chapter headings are "Citizenship," the "American Nation" (a study of geography and people), "Social Organization," "Political Organization," "Economic Organization," the "Home and Family." Part II treats of the formal study of government, the "Government and the Citizen," showing the relation of the citizen to the State and his influence upon it. The machinery of government is here discussed and its application made in local, State, and national branches. Part III, "Some Public Activities," shows the functions of these governments. The topics, "Public Health and Welfare," "Labor and Industry," "Commerce," "Other Business Activities," "Conservation," cover briefly the social and economic problems.

A departure from the usual method of treatment in the traditional civics text is seen in the absence of most of the historical material so much of which has been found in most of them. There is also missing much technical material. For example, in the section which discusses the court procedure no mention is made of such terms as summons, subpoena, warrant, bail, injunction, extradition. This book is well adapted to form the basis for an excellent course in civics. The author has presented the subject in an attractive manner and in a very pleasing style. Each topic is treated from the point of view of the individual citizen rather than from the standpoint of the governmental organization, a feature of the book which greatly appeals. There is about the work an attitude toward public questions, at once wholesome and invigorating, an idealism which cannot fail to stimulate a high moral response in the student.

W. H. HATHAWAY.

Riverside High School, Milwaukee.

BOGART, ERNEST LUDLOW, AND THOMPSON, CHARLES MANFRED (editors). *Readings in the Economic History of the United States*. Longmans, Green & Co., 1916. Pp. xxvii, 862. \$2.80.

This book of readings is designed for college students in connection with a course in the economic history of the United States. The editors suggest that in addition it may be used in connection with general courses in American history, presumably in senior classes of high schools. It gives a large number of short readings on agriculture, industry, trade, and labor in different periods. It has chapters also on topics particularly identified with the history of different epochs, as "English Colonial Theories and Policy," "The Westward Movement," "Slavery in the South," and "Economic Progress, 1860-1915."

One-fifth of the volume is devoted to the period before 1783, one-half of it to that from 1783 to the Civil War, and the balance to the last half century. This permits a fuller treatment of the early national period than is possible in the more recent period. The selections have been gleaned from many sources, and many of them are otherwise inaccessible to the average high school or college teacher. As far as possible they are taken from contemporary accounts. Almost all readings on the recent period are from government reports and are crowded with tables

of figures. From these statements it can be seen that the treatment of the colonial and early national periods is somewhat more satisfactory than that of the last half century. The value of the book for consultation lies to a great extent in the wealth of statistical material that has been brought together; its chief defect is that the readings emphasize statistics rather than the economic character of the topics treated.

The book should be exceedingly valuable for reference or for detailed study in the hands of college or advanced high school students. It should supplement admirably such a book as Bogart's "Economic History of the United States," which is not overburdened with detail, for the readings tend to err in the other direction. There is an index, and an exercise book has been published for use with the volume.

R. L. ASHLEY.

Pasadena High School, Pasadena, Cal.

DYNES, SARAH A. *Socializing the Child. A Guide to the Teaching of History in the Primary Grades*. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1916. Pp. x, 302. \$1.00.

The central idea of this excellent little book is found in two sentences of the introduction. "It is impossible for the child to picture society of other countries and other times until he has first learned to observe the simple, conspicuous elements in society about him, impossible for him to grasp the significance of events of the past until he has some conception of organized society as it exists to-day. Consequently, the first step towards laying a foundation for the future study of history and of other social subjects is to deepen the child's appreciation of the human relations with which he is already familiar, in other words, to socialize him."

Miss Dynes has worked out most thoroughly the actual operations of class work based upon the principles that are involved in the term "socializing." It is hoped that no teacher in the first three grades will miss catching the spirit of this book. Nor should any teacher of the upper grades or high school imagine that the socializing process is completed in those grades. The bane of history teaching, the thing that often makes it hated and profitless, is the failure of teachers in grades higher than those of the primary department to be guided by such principles as those here laid down concerning what it is possible for pupils to grasp and how they are enabled to grasp and appreciate the subject matter of their lessons.

Part I consists of a well-written summary of the accepted psychological and pedagogical principles underlying the teaching of children. Some of the topics are: The value of play, the child's experience as a basis for history study, the communicative and dramatic instincts, the function of imagination. There is also included a tabulation of the interests of children.

Part II has chapters upon the sand table and its uses, the use of pictures, and construction work. Then follow a chapter each on first, second, and third grade work, hero stories, and celebrations. In these chapters the theory upon which the work proceeds occupies only a minor place. The subject matter is worked out in considerable detail. There are type lessons upon a visit to the farm, the origin of the use of fire by primitive man, life in Holland, Germany, Japan, and France; the stories of Joseph, Ulysses, Alexander the Great and Columbus. Each chapter has a bibliography and there is an extensive list of references at the close of the volume. The illustrations are numerous and excellent.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

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BREASTED, J. H., HUTH, C. F., JR., and HARDING, S. H.
Ancient—Medieval—Modern History Maps. Chicago:
Denoyer-Geppert Company.

This series of historical charts marks as noteworthy an advance in the making of historical wall maps in America as the production of Professor Shepherd's "Historical Atlas" did in its field. Indeed, the editors and publishers of the Breasted-Huth-Harding maps deserve greater credit, since in their case all the work of manufacture as well as editing, was done in the United States. The maps combine in an especial degree the results of American scholarship with a practical knowledge of map making. This co-operation has succeeded in producing a series of historical maps which in its field is unequalled among American publications. The maps are marked by a simple, and usually harmonious color scheme; unnecessary details are eliminated; and the larger features are made to stand out—often by ingenious devices—so that they are visible across an ordinary class-room.

The series includes sixteen plates on ancient history, and twenty-three on European and English history. Perhaps a little more originality is shown in the ancient maps, particularly the earlier ones, than is found in the European series; but the latter also contain a number of novel features. This is partly due to the recent great increase in our knowledge of Egypt, Assyria, Babylonia, and particularly of the Cretan and Aegean civilizations. Drs. Breasted and Huth have shown graphically the results of recent archaeological research in these regions. They will receive the thanks of history teachers for the clear manner in which they have noted not only ancient political conditions, but also lines of trade on land and sea, and the areas of production of food products, minerals, and other articles of ancient commerce. One map, for instance, gives the number of sailing days required from the Nile delta to the principal ports of the eastern Mediterranean. It is much to be regretted that a similar map was not constructed for the entire Mediterranean in Roman days.

Among the European history maps especial mention should be made of the map of France showing the feudal provinces, of the maps showing ecclesiastical lands in Germany, and monasteries and bishoprics in England and France, and the route of the Armada, giving dates at various points on the voyage. An excellent bit of work is found in the map on medieval trade and centers of production. On English history the noteworthy special maps are those showing the distribution of iron and coal, and the effect of the reform bill of 1832 upon borough and county representation. The principal political changes are well shown; the partition of Poland, the unification of Germany and Italy, the advance and decline of Turkey, and the rise of the Balkan States.

With so much that is good it may seem ungrateful to ask for more; but one cannot but wish that the editors and publishers will soon add to the series physical maps of Europe and its principal countries; a chart showing the development of Brandenburg-Prussia; one on the expansion of Russia; and a map or maps showing the population basis of Pan-Germanism and Pan-Slavism. Most of this material, it should be said, can be gathered by comparing several of the maps now in the series; good pedagogy might be promoted by showing these details on single maps.

The series will be of value not only in secondary schools, but will be a useful addition to the historical equipment of colleges, especially for use in section work with large classes.

Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

The "Outlook" for August 8 publishes an article by Gregory Mason, the Outlook's staff correspondent in Russia, on "To Fight or Not to Fight, Russia's Dilemma." In Russia, according to Mr. Mason, the question is not so much a question of "To fight or not to fight," as it is of the form the battle shall take, whether it shall be a war against capitalism or war against Germany. One party wants war at home and peace abroad. The other faction wants peace at home and war abroad. In the same issue is John H. Finley's "Anywhere in France," a report of the spirit in which the schools and the teachers of France have borne themselves in the exigencies of the war.

Henry Snyder writes on "Kerensky of Russia" in the August "Review of Reviews." Mr. Snyder has just returned from Russia, and consequently his word has additional value. According to the author, the war minister's strength lies in his democracy and in the fact that he is a native Russian. He bases his entire hope of ultimate success on the single policy of compromise.

The secretary of the Council of National Defense, Grosvenor Clarkson, gives an account of "What the Council of National Defense Is, and What It Has Done" in the August "Scribner's."

"Can the Irish Settle the Irish Question?" by Frank Dilnot, in the August "World's Work," argues quite convincingly that only by the Irish can it be settled. At present it is too difficult for either Irishmen or Englishmen to see the way out, but the issues are becoming distinct, which is in itself a hopeful sign.

Ambassador J. J. Jusserand presents an abridgment from his volume, "With Americans of Past and Present Days," in the "National Geographic Magazine" for June, under the title, "Our First Alliance."

Raoul Blanchard, exchange professor at Harvard University for 1916-17, has a notable article on "Tactics and Armament: an Evolution," in the August "Atlantic." The article undertakes "to explain the great transformations which have taken place in the operations on the Western front, passing from a state of most rapid flux to the absolute immobility of trench warfare, and now tending to abandon this stagnation in favor of fighting in the open."

Hendrick Willem van Loon's article on "The Neutrals and the Allied Cause" ("Century" for August) places "the key to immediate victory in the great European War in the hands of the small neutral states of the continent."

"The Serbian Tragedy As I Saw It," by Herbert Carey in the August "Harper's," is an account by an eye-witness of the last campaign of the Serbian army, as inspiring in its bravery as it was tragic in its extreme poverty of men and army.

"The Sewanee Review" for July publishes Thomas J. Wertenbaker's "An Attempt to Reform the Church of Colonial Virginia," which throws new light on social conditions in seventeenth century Virginia and the work of the saintly Blair, and "Some Medieval Charms," by Editor John M. McBryde, Jr., an interesting account of magic rhymes.

"The Cabinet in the Eighteenth Century," by Edward Raymond Turner, in "The English Historical Review" for April, is a criticism of the idea that during the eighteenth century in England there was really a system of two cabinets, a large outer one more formal than efficient, with an

inner cabinet or conciliabulum which possessed the real power and did the work of governing the kingdom. While this may have existed during the second half of the eighteenth century, yet Mr. Turner has proven that during the earlier period the idea has little proper foundation.

St. Nihal Singh's article on "India's Changing Status in the Empire," in "The London Quarterly Review" for July, is a recognition, long withheld, of the real benefits the English government has bestowed on that part of the British Empire—benefits social, military and political.

The article on "An Irish Settlement," in the July "Nineteenth Century," "Is It Wise to Establish Home Rule Before the End of the War," by Professor A. V. Dicey; and "A Southern Unionist's View," by Sir Henry Blake, are both in favor of a postponement of any settlement of this question until after the war is over. The former article is an excellent account of the fundamental differences which make an immediate settlement unwise.

Professor Thomas Walker Page, of the University of Virginia, writes on "Lynching and Race Relations" in the August "North American Review." His article is by far the best analysis of race relations in the Southern States which has yet appeared.

"The State of Feeling in Old Greece," by M. Ronald Burrows, in "The Contemporary Review" for July, gives a clear idea of party divisions at the time of the abdication of Constantine.

BOOKS ON HISTORY AND POLITICS PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM APRIL 28 TO JULY 28, 1917.

NOTES.

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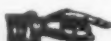
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